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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1942

Victory, Then Disaster?

J. HARTT WALSH

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We must win the war. We will win the war! But then what? Will it be followed by national and international economic and political chaos? It may seem ill-timed to bring this up when we are caught in the searing flames of an all-engulfing holocaust that shakes and threatens the very foundations of civilization—when this life or death struggle demands and will continue to demand every last bit of material and human resource and all the inventive genius we can muster.

This certainly is no time for post-mortems. But we might well inquire why we were caught almost unaware when the war-god Mars, thrust his dastardly dagger into the vitals of Pearl Harbor on December 7; why we had relatively little military equipment; and why much needed materiel had not even passed through the blueprint stage. Winston Churchill gave the answer. In his address before the American Congress he averred that for twenty years Americans and British alike had devoted themselves to the doctrine of world-wide peace—peace through meditation, treaty, armament scrapping, compromise, and appeasement. Our confidence in the olive branch as the sole solution of international economic and political dislocations was almost fanatical. We were blinded by our own sincerity and passionate desire for peace. For twenty years the rank and file Americans have been like naive babes in the woods. And during the past few years we have been like ostriches with our heads in the sands of wishful thinking.

Proof? Hitler was pictured as a funny paper-hanging maniac who was not to be taken seriously; so we believed. Goebbels "let it leak out" (I am convinced) that in the Austrian "conquest" synthetic oils and rubber, poor organization and equipment, and bad roads all but thwarted the Germans; so we believed. Chamberlain said we would have peace in our times; so we believed. Two oceans offered us perfect protection and isolation; again we believed.

The trouble? As a nation we had not clearly recognized the problems, and we had not done any long-range realistic planning. Now we have to do much of our thinking, planning, and acting simultaneously. This is difficult, hazzardous and costly. Our present predicament is not the fault of any one group or individual. It is not the fault of the Congress or the President, of labor or capital, of the army or the navy, of conservatives or liberals. It is the fault of every one of us. We could not and perhaps would not see, despite the prophetic pleading of a few. We Americans should have had some pretty well-formulated laymen's notions of the *general* aspects of military and naval needs in materiel, in geographic location, in men, and in supplies; of industrial adjustments necessary in an emergency; of economic and social dislocations that might follow; of civilian problems; and, by no means least or last, of the time required. All this demands an unbiased appraisal of *all* possibilities.

Should we not now be planning for the period of

reconstruction following this war? Will we wait until after the victory parades pass down Fifth Avenue, Michigan Avenue, and Sunset Boulevard; until after all the taxi horns have been blown off the cabs; until after the tons of serpentine and confetti have finally settled knee-deep in the streets? And as a nation will we awaken the following morning with a headache as demoralizing as that of many a New Year's celebrant?

What may be some of our post-war problems? For one thing there is going to be a tremendous industrial dislocation as we shift from a war-time economy back to a peace-time economy. The problems we have faced in gearing our industrial system to meet the needs of war will be multiplied many times. There will be a natural let-down after we have won the battle for freedom. The stimulus and incentive to "snap the Jap off the map" and to "Hit Hitler harder" will be gone. The nine months needed to re-tool our factories for winning the war will be twelve, eighteen, or twenty-four months in the transformation to peaceful pursuits. The delays, bottlenecks, and confusion of 1939-1941 will be just as great and as serious in 1945-1950 unless they are anticipated now. To get our industrial gargantua turned around and to keep it moving will require a clear recognition of the problems involved, and careful planning in advance. Perhaps the OPM will be replaced by the ORM (Office of Reconstruction Management), with a Donald Nelson as the single responsible director. It is extremely doubtful if the return to the system of free enterprise can be effected at once without bringing serious economic and social consequences. A return to some form of free enterprise for business certainly should be one concern, but it should be gradual and should be dictated by current and possible future changes and conditions brought about by the war. No program can run at cross currents to the thinking of the people.

We have had to pool the resources, equipment, manpower, and ideas of hundreds of separate industrial units for the effective prosecution of the war. It has not been an easy problem. The best minds of the nation have been taxed in its solution. It has been a slow process. This synchronization must be continued at a slowly decelerating rate in the immediate post-war era. "Business as usual" cannot be possible until the nation and the people return to "life as usual." Left to its individual devices business will be as reluctant to initiate a move, as the boys at the old swimmin' hole in early April, even though the dies and machines may have been left intact for the immediate resumption of work after the cessation of hostilities. The bare fact is that every business is dependent upon every other business either as a buyer, supplier, or competitor. The "go ahead" must come from the public. But without

careful prior planning for the change-over much confusion and disorder may result.

We have been amazed at the fact that thousands of our citizens have been thrown out of work, unemployed (as in the auto industry), despite a labor shortage. The need for government relief measures at this time has disturbed us. If such conditions exist under the pressure of war emergency, what will they be like when that pressure is removed—unless some careful thinking has been done?

Most workers live up to the limits of their income. A few weeks lay-off, a stoppage of credit, and they are in straitened circumstances. Unemployment insurance will carry them for a while but not for a prolonged period. Unemployment and lack of funds mean a reduction in purchasing power, and reduced purchasing power will act like four-wheel brakes on our industrial machine which is trying to re-dress itself to make refrigerators instead of fuselages; tires instead of tractor cleats; pleasure cars instead of planes. The manufacturer who sees only a shrinking market will naturally be loath to re-tool, re-build, and re-employ very rapidly. War-time government loans, government building, and government urging will be gone. The accelerating downward spiral of reduced buying power, unemployment, a still larger reduction in buying power, and more unemployment, or a depression, will have begun.

No small problem certainly, will be the absorption of our fighting men into satisfactory civilian occupations, especially when we realize that about twenty million defense workers are likewise trying to return to peace-time occupations. Even though a juxtaposition of defense workers could be achieved with a minimum of lost motion after the peace, the imbalance resulting from the return of several million soldiers and sailors, unemployed and without sizeable reserves after discharge, would present a challenging problem.

We should have a comprehensive plan for economic and social reconstruction after the war. The framework for that plan must be laid now. We cannot wait until the peace is signed. It must be ready the moment it is needed. Our recent unhappy experience should dictate the wisdom of advance preparation.

The average man-on-the-street cannot be expected to know, to care, or to comprehend many of the technical details; these are for the experts. But he can and should know general purposes, principles, problems, and plans. He should be interested in them, approve them, and advise his representatives on them. The mass of the American citizens must be aware of the needs of the future as well as of the problems of the present.

Another problem concerns the disposition of vast stores of war equipment that will be left when

hostilities cease; there will be trucks, tanks, planes, ships, and supplies. And as a corollary problem there will be the matter of adapting to civilian purposes the knowledges and skills used in winning the war. How will we use this vast reservoir of intellectual and technological achievements? One wonders if the army trucks might not be readily adapted to use by various subordinate political units (villages, towns, counties, cities, states) for highway maintenance and similar purposes. Perhaps the tanks could be rebuilt for heavy construction work. In other words might it not be possible that these units could be used to stimulate an expanding program of trans-continental express and feeder highway construction, of airport development, and of housing improvement? This equipment must not become a drug on the market; it must not be allowed to rust in crates, on the fields, and in army cantonments; that happened in 1919.

It does not take a Jules Verne imagination to perceive a phenomenal and mushroom-like growth in our communication facilities, a development that would see every cross-roads neighborhood woven more intimately into the fabric of this great nation by an intricate system of railroad, bus, and air transportation. We certainly will have the pilots, operators, and mechanics; and we will have the equipment and the plants to produce more in abundance. Far-reaching, long-range programs in other areas will urge themselves upon us, dictated by our experiences of the past two decades but more especially by those of the present emergency. These will include plans for physical and health improvement, adequate and suitable housing, and vocational, recreational, and cultural experiences for everyone. They can be made available to everyone, to the limits of his abilities and interests—if we will but plan now and put to work later the knowledges, skills, and equipment that will be easily within our reach.

Then there is the problem of financing. It is difficult to see how we can take away federal spending at the rate of fifty billions a year when the nation is trying to adjust itself to the problems of peaceful living, without the results being nearly catastrophic. Business as usual will be increasingly, but not im-

mediately possible during the period of re-adjustment. For several years the national government may be compelled to subsidize our economy in gradually decreasing amounts until the transformation has been completed and conditions stabilized to peacetime levels again. An immediate drop in the federal budget from fifty billions annually to ten or fifteen billions might be fatal to any post-war program.

The problems in international economics will be somewhat similar to our national ones, but more complex. Problems in international politics must be recognized and dealt with. We can demonstrate the principles and practices of democracy through our attitude and action. There will be such matters as international trade, national self-determination over wide areas, international policing, industrial and financial rejuvenation, re-patriation and migration, social improvement, and a host of other problems. Like jacks-in-the-box they will pop up just as soon as we have won the peace. The world is a community of nations. Whether we label it formally and technically as a confederation, a union, or a league, matters little. We are all interdependent. The problems of one nation or continent may soon become our problems. That has been amply demonstrated. Co-operative effort in their solution is vital. Perhaps out of this war with all its cruelty, destruction, and heartaches will come the realization that the problems and actions of every nation impinge themselves upon all others; that their problems and actions are second only, if that, to our own primary concerns.

The satisfactory solution of any problem, however, demands a clear-cut definition of purposes and a long-range well-laid plan conceived far in advance. It also demands a citizenry that is alert, interested, and informed; a citizenry that has a comprehensive grasp of the general principles involved. Let us begin *now* to try to understand the over-all problems of the post-war era: industrial dislocation and corollary unemployment; social and economic needs and possibilities; the disposition of military stocks; national finance; and international improvements. We will win the war! We will win the peace. We can and will have an even greater America, if we will—but we must plan now.

What Shall we Test?

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Within the last decade we have witnessed a very rapid change in the nation's economic and social structure—a change in which we have recognized

more than ever the value of the individual as a social being and have seen the good neighbor policy applied to the community in such a way that democracy

is becoming more practical and realistic. The truth is self-evident; our neighbor's welfare is our welfare. This is the spirit of democracy. It is also a challenge to all social study teachers to apply this principle not only by word but by deed.

How shall we instill into the student this spirit of democracy? Shall we remain complacent and continue the old method of recitation from a textbook? Shall we continue the old method of testing to determine whether that student has accumulated by rote the limited information of a textbook? These questions and many others may cause us as teachers of the social studies to take an inventory of our methods, to determine whether we are meeting the many challenges to our democratic system.

If we who are in the position to do so have not trained these pupils to master the technique of observation, perception and reasoning, then we have failed miserably in our task. We have grievously underrated the challenging demands of twentieth century America. The answer as to how we can meet these demands lies in the methods of presenting the social studies.

We shall confine this discussion to the methods of testing. The process of testing requires a clarification of its purpose. We must not permit the student to accept it as a criterion of failure or success. This would be fatal. He should be convinced that this process is a method to determine whether he is re-adjusting himself to the ever changing demands of a democratic state. There must be motivation of this process if the student is to realize the value of it. Life itself is one continuous process of testing ones ability to learn. Progress is the result of questioning our status quo to determine whether we have made a success as a citizen, worthy of the benefits of a democracy. Testing should not only determine the person's status quo but also offer an orientation for the purpose of adjustment.

Therefore, the ultimate goal of testing is to make an evaluation to determine whether the student is meeting the responsibilities of citizenship. These responsibilities suggest a thorough training in observation, reasoning, discernment, and an appreciation of values. All these may be expressed as the summation of good habits, which are indicative of a progressive social behavior. This purpose must be constantly emphasized so that the student may appreciate the utility of such a testing program. In too many cases a test only determines whether the person has memorized a few facts which may only serve as *prima-facie* evidence of the student's acceptance of such information by rote. Such a test may cause that person to become a "textbook addict." He may wonder if democracy holds no more for him than the mere acceptance of a stereotype pattern, conforming blindly to the mores—a product which is mentally sterile, a

fawning puppet swept helplessly along by sinister propaganda, suffocated by the insatiable greed of pressure groups, confused by the intemperate speech of the politician.

The school is a society itself, composed of persons living and working together. It should attempt to portray the pattern of life its young people will meet when they leave the school. Then why should we disillusion them by destroying the continuity between the social pattern of living and working together, and the life lived within the school? A test without this motivation of preparing these young people to cope with the problems of society is the sin of disillusion.

With the realization of the need of a practical testing program, it is the responsibility of the teacher to establish conditions which will create in the student a proper attitude toward a test. This denotes complete cooperation between the teacher and the student. Without this, the plan will fail. The test must not be so constructed that the student will have the attitude of submitting to an inquisition to determine whether he is the master of the textbook. Rather, a test in which he can determine for himself whether he is the master of technique.

The materials used in a testing program should be evaluated to determine whether they will serve the purpose. These should be the same as those used in the preparation of the unit, selected by the students with the advice of the teacher. A textbook has its place among these materials. It should serve as a medium to suggest certain problems for discussion, provided it is not the sole source of information. It should also offer the student an opportunity to compare his own observations, however casual, with those of the authors. Newspapers and periodicals offer interesting avenues of research; these depict the realities of life and are inestimable in the practice of appraising sources of information. The student should perceive and recognize colorful accounts presented by reporters, commentators and writers to excite interest. Much is to be gained by studying our everyday problems of living and working together in our democratic system. A very fertile field for such a study is found in the local community, not mentioning the possibilities in the state and national community.

When the test is so constructed that by using these materials he can test his technique, the student will have a growing confidence in the merit of this type of test. He will realize the practical value of proper work habits which are so desirable for success in any walk of life, however lowly it may be. The testing period should be a continuation of the laboratory procedure used in the preparation of the unit. Here the student will have before him the materials that he used during the preparation of the unit—the text-

book, periodicals, newspaper items, and other mediums of information. Now, he is ready to determine how well he has mastered the techniques he used in the preparation of the unit.

The testing period should be very informal. The student should be free to move about seeking the information from the materials in the classroom. Since it is absolutely necessary that the person taking the test be free from nervous strain, the external conditions of the classroom must be conducive to the achievement of mental effort, however. The position of the teacher during this period should not be in the capacity of a "watcher" but that of an adviser. The pupil-teacher relationship should be free from constraint. The pupil should find it easy and natural to consult the teacher at any time there is need for it. This should alleviate the tension which is so often noticeable in a formal test.

The questions must be of such a nature that they will test one's mastery of technique. A portion of the test should be devoted to materials which measure his training in observation and comprehensive reading. Other sections of the test should demonstrate his ability to reason and his ability to meet a new situation with a background corresponding to situations he has encountered during his study of the unit. This type of test places a great responsibility upon the teacher. He must be capable of preparing a test that will accomplish these objectives.

While the purpose of this type of test must not be thwarted by arbitrary grading systems, we should not minimize the exigency of certain standards in evaluating the results. The teacher, as well as the pupil, is interested in learning whether progress is being made in the mastery of technique. This cannot be measured very well by a grading system consisting of letters or numbers because it will not give a complete picture of the progress made in the different phases of the work. Such a system will never reveal how well that person is making use of his abilities. An exposition of the results of the test or tests will reveal more clearly the learning process; this should be in the form of a conference between the teacher and pupil at which time the teacher should make a complete examination of the student's habits. This informal conference should afford the pupil an opportunity to analyze his work habits, without any embarrassment to him.

In this pupil-teacher conference there should be a discussion of the purpose of the test, an explanation of how the questions emphasize the results attained by proper work habits rather than by slavish perusal of only a textbook that may be entirely unrelated to real life problems. Without this emphasis, the student may not grasp the "spirit" of cooperation which is so essential for the proper results. After he has been instructed concerning the import of the purpose,

the discussion may proceed with a survey of these methods of approach—the facility of finding the information, ability to coordinate the materials, and skill in utilizing all available materials to the best advantage. The questions, rating the student's proficiency in observation and perception, should be clarified for him in order that he may understand the motivation. This method of examining the progress of the student should prove far more valuable from a practical viewpoint than the conventional method of measuring progress.

Such a testing program should prove salutary from the standpoint of preparing youth to meet the responsibilities of adult citizenship. Democracy connotes a social structure that is responsive to its problems; an intelligent people warring against the greed of all subversive elements. This means that the citizen should be better equipped in the proper procedure of approaching these problems.

This type of test, it is believed, will do more to adapt the work of the social studies to the life situations outside of the school. In the first place, the student should have a deeper realization of what democracy means. The arbitrary will of a teacher finds no place in this democratic procedure. Analysis of the student's progress, with the teacher serving in an advisory capacity, is determined by him. The social studies classroom will become a laboratory out of which may come, as a result of this procedure, a more significant meaning of democracy.

Another benefit of this testing procedure is the emphasis upon honesty. The test itself offers no temptation to the student to deceive the teacher or even himself. Conditions, such as access to available materials, availability of the teacher for advice, and an understanding of the purpose of the test, reassure him. Since it is not a memory test of limited textbook material, he sees no benefit in cramming which is an unwarrantable method of gathering information unintelligent to the student, but a method of opening up the avenues of learning.

This type of test will also meet the criticisms of academic training. The skills and precision of the mechanical trades demand one who is alert and shows deftness in the art of observation and the ability to reason. This same art of observation and ability to reason is the one that can be taught in the social studies' classroom.

This suggestion for a vitalized testing program is not a panacea for all the "ills of pedagogy," but it may point to the importance of reviewing our methods of testing in order to discover the weaknesses of the system. We want the products of the secondary schools well equipped to meet the demands of a democracy. It is possible that a change in our methods of testing will contribute to a more enlightened citizenship.

Is World History Being Taught For Civic Purposes?

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Before attempting to answer this challenging question, it is imperative to clarify the definition of the term "civic purposes." Briefly, they are those aims of instruction which tend to create the insights, ideals, appreciations, attitudes and hopes which make the individual a good member of a democratic society. They stand in contrast to the personal-culture values which are designed to make the individual's own life richer, fuller and happier. Personal-culture aims prepare for individual living, civic aims for group life. It seems the peculiar function of world history to prepare for citizenship in the largest group of all—the world.

Today, certainly the schools cannot dodge their responsibility to equip future citizens with a knowledge of world affairs and, of even greater importance, with a *will* to try to remedy the chaos about them. This latter duty means the development of proper civic attitudes, habits and ideals towards matters of foreign policy. The study of history, particularly European and world history, is included in the school curricula for this purpose, but even the casual critic can show educators that it has been far from a complete success. In spite of all our instruction in history, the majority of pupils seem very little better informed about world affairs and no more interested in these matters than though they had not been exposed to the instruction. One proof of this statement is found in the results of the Regents' Inquiry which shows that the social studies do not fulfill their high sounding purpose of "making better citizens." Little discernible difference in achievement and attitudes was found between those students who have taken "many courses" in history and those who have taken only the required one. In fact, in some respects, the group taking only the required course was superior to the group taking all three history courses traditionally offered in the senior high schools of New York State.¹ With the exception of those isolated examples of unusual and constructive curriculum-making found in any state, it seems fairly safe to assume that the situation throughout the country is much the same as in New York. Evidence obtained from questionnaires and interviews with teachers of

world history in Massachusetts revealed the very general opinion that this particular subject is not meeting the task assigned it and widely expressed was the wish "that something might be done about it."

If world history is to fulfill its civic purpose it stands to reason that the statement of its aims should be definite and meaningful and the content of the course carefully selected to realize these aims. Many topics of history study do not make valuable contributions to worthy civic ideals, intelligent voting or tolerant public opinion. In fact some fields of history might well have the opposite effect and should be omitted from a course for high school pupils who are not historical scholars, but very average American citizens in the making. Other fields of history may well contribute information, insights and appreciations of personal value to the pupil, but besides the civic materials of the course, these should receive only incidental treatment. Some readers may be inclined to disagree with this statement, but after all, world history is a social study and therefore, according to the best authorities, its primary purpose is the cultivation of good citizenship. Furthermore it is not wise to attempt to "put across" both civic and personal values simultaneously as it is doubtful that any particular topic can be made to serve both the civic purposes and the personal-culture values of instruction profitably at one and the same time. Moreover, even though all the materials of world history did possess civic values—which they definitely do not—it would be impossible to use them all effectively in a one-year course.

Recognizing the crying need for training in world citizenship and, consequently, the importance of a clear-cut statement of exact aims and of the thoughtful selection of materials for their civic values, one must next ask: "Does such a valuable list of purposes exist?" and "Has this careful choice of content been undertaken?" The answers are regrettable, but the evidence presented shows that the desired statement of aims cannot be found and that, by and large, the materials of world history instruction have not been cut and selected principally for their civic value. Undoubtedly the lack of definite and meaningful aims as a guide is, in large part, responsible for the failure

¹ See H. E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938), Chapter II.

to eliminate worthless content and to choose the remainder for pertinence to citizenship training. Unless we know with surety and exactness where we are going, we cannot expect to pick the best route or to equip ourselves with the most efficient vehicles for reaching our destination. One of the most serious handicaps to the effective teaching of the social studies is the failure to draft aims which are exact, pertinent, and immediately meaningful. The statements of aims which exist are filled with high-sounding phrases and vague generalities which are either without meaning for the average teacher or beyond the possibilities of accomplishment with the average pupil. What is true of the social studies in general is especially true of world history.

A search through the works of leading social scientists and experts in the teaching of social studies yields little fruit to the teacher who is seeking a definite set of aims for this field. Objectives of history teaching in general are given, but practically no authorities mention specific and especial aims for this subject. To evolve an authoritative statement of purposes for world history one must seek among the general objectives of history instruction those aims which are directly applicable to this course. It is no easy matter to sift such aims from the wordy and ambiguous writings of the majority of the authorities and then weld them into an explicit statement of purposes.

Turning first to the social scientists one unearths few suggestions beyond generalities about historical perspective and broadmindedness, or the development of purely scholarly habits and skills which the average high school pupil would never use, even if he were capable of acquiring them. The most helpful work of the social scientists which this writer has discovered is in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association and this fails to establish specific objectives that relate to the fundamental needs and real interests of the pupils. Nevertheless some of these objectives seem significant as signposts to the right direction. One cannot deny the civic worth of such attitudes as:

1. Respect for the rights and opinions of others.
2. Zeal for truth.
3. Vivid sense of responsibility in all relations.
4. A lively interest in contemporary affairs.
5. A desire to participate in the world's work.²

One can question, however, whether these objectives are the especial function of world history or whether their accomplishment is a possibility with the tenth-grade youngsters to whom the course is habitually offered. These questions must be answered by the teachers and if these aims are adopted, they must be used only as guides and from them drawn simple,

² C. A. Beard, *A Charter for the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932).

direct and clearly-stated purposes immediately relevant to the needs and interests of the pupils taught.

Unfortunately, teachers seem to have failed quite generally in the formulation of definite objectives for the social studies. Lack of specificity regarding aims is rather to be expected among the social scientists. Their work is to discover and present social facts in a scientific and impartial manner. They are not concerned with the selection and adaptation of these materials for teaching purposes on the elementary and secondary levels, these are the tasks for the teachers. When confusion and vagueness concerning objectives are found among the teachers, and particularly among the outstanding ones, it is far greater cause for discouragement. That such hazy and redundant thinking does exist is evidenced by these excerpts from the writings of the authorities:

History is a valuable tool for use in developing a spirit of altruism and understanding in order to throttle unhappy provincialism and enhance an ever expanding spirit of cooperation.³

or:

Draw reasonable and sensible conclusions and lessons from a . . . study of . . . institutions, movements, units and trends covered by the course.⁴

or again:

To cultivate toleration in order to lessen tension and to diversify culture.⁵

Such statements are high-sounding and undoubtedly truly fine in their purpose, but to translate them into precise and exact objectives towards which to direct one's teaching is quite a different matter. What meaning can "altruism" be made to hold for adolescents thirteen to sixteen? What "reasonable and sensible conclusions" can they be expected to draw with their limited experience—real or vicarious? What sort of tension do we wish to lessen? These and many similar questions come to mind upon reading these sentences. Perhaps the very nature of the materials of social studies instruction makes the formulation of specific aims more difficult for these subjects than for many others, but it cannot be an impossibility, for occasionally it has been accomplished with an encouraging degree of success (e.g., *A Syllabus in American History and Problems of Democracy for Secondary Schools* by a Committee of the New England History Teachers Association).

Finally in spite of the hurdles of confusion and generalities, the writer selected a list of objectives which she believes are pertinent to world history instruction. The basis for their choice has been the fre-

³ R. M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), p. 93.

⁴ J. M. Gathany, "Current Events and the Teaching of European History," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXV (March, 1934), 113.

⁵ E. B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937), p. 166.

quency of mention by the authorities. It is true that some of these can be considered aims for other courses also, but it seems to the writer that world history should make very marked contributions towards their accomplishment and their inclusion is thereby justifiable. The objectives chosen are:

I. *Knowledge, Skills and Habits*

1. To learn the techniques of finding information.
2. To understand generalizations and causal relationships.
3. To learn and understand instances of social, economic and political processes.
4. To understand basic political, economic and social trends in world history.
5. The habit of reading newspaper and magazine articles about world affairs.
6. Ability to recognize propaganda.
7. To acquire a perspective for understanding contemporary issues.

II. *Attitudes*

1. Tolerance and sympathy for peoples in all lands.
2. Fair-mindedness and willingness to hear and weigh evidence from all sides.
3. Capacity for suspended judgment.
4. Love of world peace and desire for co-operation among nations.
5. Love of truth.

Even yet it can be readily seen that this list of aims leaves much to be desired in definitude, easy comprehension, and immediate import. The first, fifth and sixth objectives in the first group and one and four in the second can be easily understood and their meaning is reasonably certain. The others, however, are too general or too all-inclusive and, in some cases, their meaning cannot readily be grasped. Nevertheless they are the most precise aims which could be found among the writings of the authorities.

This list was then submitted to the teachers of world history in the high schools of Massachusetts with the request to check *twice* the aims considered very important, *once* those believed fairly important and to cross out any considered valueless. Few teachers wished to eliminate any of the objectives presented. On the whole the development of desirable attitudes was considered more important by the teachers than the acquisition of knowledge, skills and habits. Of the latter, only "understanding basic political, economic and social trends in world history," "perspective for understanding contemporary issues," and "habit of reading articles about world affairs" were ranked in importance with the attitudes. Developing a "capacity for suspended judgment" was ranked as least significant among the attitudes. In view of the immaturity of tenth-grade

pupils and the difficulty in achieving a "capacity for suspended judgment" even among supposedly educated adults, it is not surprising to find that teachers evaluate this as a less significant aim. It is surprising, however, to discover "learning the techniques of finding information" and "ability to recognize propaganda" rated comparatively low. These have received much attention among leading educators in recent years and one would expect teachers in service to rate them more highly. Possible explanation of this situation may be found in the lack of facilities in many schools for instruction in the methods of finding information and in the opinion that the ability to recognize propaganda can be more effectively developed in the problems of democracy course. In schools where that subject is not offered, the attainment of this objective would devolve upon the history courses.

Through questionnaires and interviews the same teachers were invited to suggest additional civic aims. Unfortunately this request did not bear much fruit. Twenty-one teachers recommended other objectives, some of which repeat, in different words, the aims given on the questionnaire and others of which are definitely not civic aims at all. The only civic purposes suggested more than once were "appreciation of democracy as best form of government," "appreciation of our rich heritage from other lands, ages and cultures," and "appreciation of contributions of great figures of history" (and none of these was mentioned more than four times!) If the majority of world history teachers had thought out for themselves simple, specific and meaningful objectives, it is reasonable to believe that more suggestions would have been forthcoming. The paucity of responses is further evidence of the failure to formulate precise goals for social studies instruction.

Specific and meaningful objectives appear, then, to be missing all along the line. The best which the social scientists and experts in social studies instruction offer are fine-sounding statements, many of which are not very closely related either to the interests of the pupils or to the possibility of attainment. Theoretically, at least, the teachers in service seem to be in agreement with most of these vague and indefinite aims. Even where adverse criticism of this set of objectives was raised, little or nothing constructive was offered to take their place.

After an exposition of the lack of specific civic objectives, it is not at all surprising to learn that much subject-matter obviously not civic in character is included in the average course in world history. By means of the same interviews and questionnaires, a composite picture of the content of the traditional course was obtained. This material was then divided into three classifications: civic content, personal-culture content, and "deadwood." The last mentioned

includes that information of little or no meaning for high school pupils and hence valueless in a course given them. With this category we shall deal first and to it relegate these topics: history of the ancient West, medieval church history, feudalism, scholasticism, ideas of eighteenth century philosophers and economists, French constitutional changes from 1789-1799, technicalities of the Congress of Vienna, Napoleon III and the Second French Empire, and details of pre-World War I system of alliances. These are rather remote for tenth-grade youngsters to grasp and apply to current problems. The course would gain if these were discarded as "deadwood," and so much detail, meaningless to the pupils, thereby removed. The majority of teachers, even though they include these topics in their teaching, concur in the opinion that the topics have no civic value for tenth-graders. The American Revolution and the attitude which the United States should officially adopt towards international affairs, while not "deadwood," would seem to belong more properly in the course in United States history. Certainly, the average high school boy or girl fights the American Revolution enough times before graduation without dragging it into a course in world history.

Having disposed of certain contents of the customary course as ill-chosen, the next matter for consideration is the large amount of material included largely for its personal-culture values. Since world history should be taught for its civic worth, such material must be banished or soft-pedalled. With the exception of Athenian democracy, Roman law and government, causes of the downfall of the Roman Republic and Empire, and the comparison of conditions in ancient Rome with modern conditions, information and ideas of distinctly personal value are decidedly in the foreground in the study of "Ancient Times and the Middle Ages" (including Renaissance and Reformation). The teaching of Greek history comprises much information about sculpture, architecture and painting, literature and drama, philosophy, athletics and science. Less personal-culture materials are included in the work on Roman history, but invariably architecture and literature are given considerable attention. Paintings are usually the chief topic in the study of the Renaissance period, while the development of science and geographical exploration come in as rather poor seconds, and literature, the importance of printing and the revival of interest in learning trail far behind. In the study of "Modern Times," personal-culture materials receive decidedly less attention. Nevertheless many teachers end the course with almost as much material on modern art and music, and progress in applied science, as upon post-war trends in governments and growth of dictatorships.

The inclusion of so much "deadwood" and per-

sonal-culture content becomes a matter of added concern when an analysis of the relative amounts of class time spent on the different topics of study in the course is considered. Remembering that the information presented in the study of "Ancient Times and the Middle Ages" is largely personal-culture or "deadwood," the fact that 44 per cent of the school year is devoted to these periods is distressing. Even this may not be so startling in itself as the fact that only 9.3 per cent of the entire year is, on the average, spent upon the "World Today" (since 1920)—just the same amount as upon the civilization of ancient Greece. The Industrial Revolution, with its far-reaching economic, political and social consequences is presented in 5.6 per cent of the time, but ancient Egypt and the Near East receive 7.7%, the medieval period (476 to 1300 A.D.) 9.4%, and the Renaissance and Reformation 8.7%. Latin America and the Far East in the twentieth century rate only two-tenths of one per cent—less than one class period! In some schools so much time is given to the ancient and medieval periods that practically no time is left for anything in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.⁶ Of course, mere recency of occurrence does not, *ipso facto*, mean civic value. Certain aspects of Athenian democracy and Roman imperialism can be so presented as to convey invaluable civic lessons. On the whole, however, modern history, and especially the twentieth century, has more meaning for the average high school pupil and is more helpful to his understanding of the world in which he lives.

TABLE I
PROPORTIONATE AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT UPON
PARTICULAR PERIODS OF WORLD HISTORY

PERIODS	AVERAGE	LOW	HIGH
1. Ancient Egypt and Near East	7.7	0	15.3
2. Civilization of Ancient Greece	9.3	0	17.7
3. Roman Civilization	8.9	0	21.3
4. Medieval Period (476-1300)	9.4	0	19.2
5. Renaissance and Reformation	8.7	4.8	11.5
6. Growth of Nationalism and Autocracy in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries	6.3	2.7	10.0
7. Struggle for Colonies and Commerce	5.5	2.7	9.8
8. Industrial Revolution and Social Reform	5.6	1.4	12.3
9. French Revolution and Napoleonic Era	6.6	2.6	16.1
10. Struggles for Nationalism in the Nineteenth Century	8.5	1.3	14.1
11. Imperialism in the Nineteenth Century	4.8	0	14.1
12. Increasing International Activity in the Nineteenth Century	4.6	1.3	12.4
13. The World War	4.6	0	12.4
14. The World Today	9.3	0	23.6
15. Latin America and the Far East2	0	2.6

From these facts and figures we are forced to the conclusion that the usual world history course con-

⁶ Information obtained through questionnaires and interviews.

sumes too much time on the ancient and medieval periods which are overweighted with personal-culture content and material meaningless to adolescents. The study of "Modern Times," which constitutes only slightly more than half the course (56 per cent, to be exact) is encumbered with much "deadwood" and gives too little consideration to the immediate past. In this scant consideration, the development of science and the fine arts vies with political and economic issues for first attention. This failure to finish the course with vigorous emphasis upon civic content hinders the accomplishment of its civic purposes. In preparing for world citizenship post-war trends, especially in government and international relations, and recent economic and social progress should be the final emphatic notes concluding the general theme. Frequently, however, no mention is made of post-war attempts to establish peaceful methods of settling international disputes, world-wide trade barriers or the definite backgrounds of the present conflict. Perhaps it is felt that the present is too much with us to be clearly seen and taught, but if the study of history cannot shed some light upon the chaos about us the values claimed for it must be cancelled. One is tempted to suspect that the reasons for avoiding the present are more practical and less theoretical. Equipment for the study of recent affairs is expensive both in money and in teachers' energy. The teacher who selects current materials wisely must read widely and weigh values soundly. This necessitates the expenditure of much time and the thorough and scholarly training in history which enables one to recognize the really significant trends in the contemporary scene.

The study materials available to the teacher and pupils are, from practical necessity, a most important factor in determining the actual content of world history courses. Of these materials the textbook is by far the most important. To depart radically and successfully from the text requires a fairly extensive library (which most schools do not possess) and wide knowledge, originality and initiative on the part of the teacher. Even with all these resources the teacher may not be able to organize the course just as desired, for to do so requires more time than many teachers can afford to give to any single phase of their work. Statements made on the questionnaires and in the interviews revealed the dependence of teachers upon the text. Many believe that much material should be deleted but, with texts organized as they are, to omit anything "would leave serious gaps." So it seems that the responsibility for the failure of teachers to present materials of maximum civic worth should be laid, in part, on the doorsteps of the writers of the texts. An analysis of the content of three texts most frequently used in Massachusetts high schools has confirmed this suspicion.

These texts, which will be referred to as Texts A, B and C, are all different and are pretty representative of the general trends in history textbooks of the present, so the results of their analysis should be a trustworthy mirror of the usual high school text for world history. All the contents of these books were measured page by page and separated into the three main categories: civic materials, personal-culture materials and "deadwood." Before assigning any part of the text—whether written matter, pictures, maps or study aids—to the civic category an affirmative answer to these two questions was required: (1) Does it clearly and directly aid in the accomplishment of any of the possible civic objectives of world history?⁷ (2) Does it meet with the approval of the teachers interviewed regarding content of civic worth? Any material which failed to pass this test was next considered for its personal-culture values. Here the question was asked: Does it aid in the creation of those visions, interests and appreciations which make the pupil's personal life richer? On the deadwood pile were heaped all repetitions, meaningless and deadening details, facts which are uninteresting or beyond the comprehension of high school youngsters, and vague and unsupported generalities. In most cases judging materials was not too difficult, but in some instances it was hard to draw the line between worthwhile content and "deadwood" or between civic and personal-culture content. In these cases the manner of presentation played a large part in determining their disposition, for one author might give a civic "twist" to the facts written, while another might dwell more on the personal-culture angle and a third hand out only hard dry facts minus any interpretation. The last treatment would be so dull that any possible civic or personal values would be lost.

TABLE II
AMOUNT OF SPACE DEVOTED TO THREE MAIN PERIODS OF HISTORY BY REPRESENTATIVE TEXTS
(In percentages)

TEXTBOOK	INTRODUCTION	ANCIENT TIMES	MIDDLE AGES	MODERN TIMES
Text A	5.95	34.68	18.39	40.98
Text B	1.57	5.62	35.92	56.89
Text C	2.00	22.68	20.80	54.52

Before considering the actual results of the analysis of the texts, a few facts about the amount of space given to the three large periods of history may be pertinent. In Text A approximately 41 per cent of the materials deal with "Modern Times," whereas in Texts B and C about 57 per cent and 55 per cent respectively are about "Modern Times." It will be noted that the last mentioned books contain an

⁷ The author's own list of objectives will be explained in detail in a second article, which will appear in the next issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

amount of material about the modern period comparable with the time devoted to it by the teachers. Text A runs highest (35 per cent) on ancient history content and Text B the lowest (6 per cent). The latter book devotes more space to the "Middle Ages" than the other two books.

In the consumption of space, civic materials have the edge over personal-culture materials and "dead-wood" in all three texts. "A" also includes more introductory material designed to awaken pupil interest in the study of history and to explain the historian's methods of unravelling the story of the past. Although this book devotes so much space to "Ancient Times," most of the material is decidedly

TABLE III
AMOUNT OF SPACE DEVOTED TO DIFFERENT TYPES
OF CONTENTS IN REPRESENTATIVE TEXTS
(In percentages)

TEXTBOOK	INTRO- DUCTION	CIVIC CONTENT	PER-CUL CONTENT	DEAD- WOOD	BLANK SPACE
Text A	5.95	54.39	30.09	7.7	1.87
Text B	1.57	36.95	29.99	28.96	2.53
Text C	2.00	40.48	27.77	29.34	.41

worth while. The civic content of this part of the book is high (60 per cent) and the author makes clear and practical comparisons and contrasts between ancient and modern problems. This is most marked in his discussion of Athenian democracy and the causes of the fall of the Roman Republic and Empire. In the section of his book on the "Middle Ages," however, the civic content drops to 18 per cent, but for "Modern Times" it soars upward to 73 per cent. In Text B only 33 per cent of the materials on "Ancient Times" are civic in nature, on the medieval period only 11 per cent and for "Modern Times" 57 per cent. Text C in its incidental treatment of the ancient period puts civic content first (40 per cent), almost wholly neglects civic content in the discussion of the Middle Ages (7 per cent) but again puts it in the lead for the modern period (58 per cent). From the maze of these figures certain generalities emerge rather forcefully. First, for civic purposes many textbook discussions of the medieval period are practically worthless. Second, only A devotes more than one half of the space on ancient history to civic content or makes any consistent effort to apply its lessons to current problems. Moreover, except for Text A, the proportion of civic materials about "Modern Times" is not as great as one would hope to find in a course presented for its values in citizenship training.

After completion of this analysis of the content of the world history texts used, one is not so prone to blame teachers too severely for existing instruction in the subject. However, we must not criticize too sharply the authors of world history texts either, for

they are laboring under exactly the same handicap as the teachers of the subject, *i.e.*, the lack of specific and meaningful objectives. Much progress has been made in the selection of materials for the books and in improving the style of writing, but we cannot expect to approach perfection until authors have as a guide definite objectives which are generally accepted by important organizations of social studies teachers. The preceding analysis shows some hopeful signs in the field of textbook writing. The high percentage of civic materials in the ancient history content of Text A, the tendency of Texts A and C to minimize the Middle Ages and the fact that Texts B and C devote more than half their space to Modern Times are steps in the right direction which deserve praise and support. The most practical support that can be given the authors is the adoption of desirable and useful aims. Hence we return to our starting point—the crying need for definite and meaningful objectives. The lack of these is the root of all the evils in world history instruction.

Is world history being taught for civic purposes? If all teachers in service were asked, out of the blue, to answer this question, the majority would undoubtedly reply without much hesitation, "Yes." But the evidence before us does not justify their faith. Certainly the content of the course is not chosen for the primary purpose of achieving maximum civic values. Neither is the apportionment of time among the various topics so arranged as to place first emphasis upon civic matters. The traditional course in world history covers six thousand years of civilization and attempts to encompass the whole of man's development—political, social, intellectual, economic and moral. The endeavor to "cover" all of this ground in one year of high school study reduces the course to a galloping race from one vague generality to another. Time is never available to assimilate thoroughly any new idea or to understand fully any trend or movement. Infrequent, indeed, is the effort to compare and contrast past and present conditions or to draw any conclusions opposite to present world conditions from the study of this field of history. The first imperative step to remedy this situation is the drafting of precise and germane objectives which are stimulating and readily comprehensible. The second imperative is the drastic reduction of the content of the course to those "areas" of history which offer information and concepts of greatest civic value. A later article will set forth the author's proposals to solve these problems and to make world history a more effective vehicle for the development of American citizens, appreciative of their own democratic heritage and equipped with intelligent opinions and cooperative attitudes towards world relations.

The Social Studies in El Salvador

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Under the intelligent and aggressive leadership of Dr. José Andrés, Orantes, Sub-secretary of Public Instruction, the Republic of El Salvador has recently adopted a new course of study for the urban elementary schools of the country, incorporating a distinctly progressive outlook, particularly in the field of the social studies.

In civics the program extends from the second through the sixth grade. The published course of study¹ includes monthly objectives, centers of observation and suggested activities for each grade. Considerable attention is given to the home, the community, and to democratic organization of the class. A characteristically Salvadorean emphasis appears in the amount of attention given to the question of Central American Union. International relationships also receive emphasis. The fifth and sixth years, although organized in the same functional manner, give chief attention to the national government and to constitutional rights and duties.

The study of geography extends through the same years, and is similarly organized. Beginning with observation of the home, attention moves next to the school, then to the community, the district, and the department, in the second and third years. In the fourth year this is extended to the nation and to other countries of Central America, and social and economic factors are introduced. The fifth year begins again with El Salvador, but moves on soon to the other American countries. El Salvador is again the point of departure in the sixth year for a survey which includes the other areas of the world.

The history program begins in the third year. Centering at first around the home and community, it is directed toward acquiring an understanding of the

time element through observation of home and community activities. Simple stories of great Salvadoreans are introduced toward the end of this first year. In the fourth grade attention is directed to comparison of developments and achievements in the various Central American republics, with the general objective of acquiring some understanding of the large similarities. In the fifth grade general lines of Central American history are studied more systematically, especially the movements for independence and for Central American union, ending with a comparison of Salvadorean history with that of the rest of the American continent. The sixth year begins with a resumé of the history of the continent and extends to a comparative study of the history of Africa, Asia and Europe, beginning with the Middle Ages.

The emphasis upon Central American unity and Pan Americanism, and the marked tendency to treat American history in the continental sense are notable features. It is also surprising in this, as in other Latin American programs, to notice the early stage at which the pupil is introduced to abstract ideas, and to comparative study. A good balance maintained is between political, economic, and other social and cultural elements, but a surprising lack of biographical emphasis throughout may well be its greatest defect from the pedagogical standpoint.

All three programs are planned around "activities," usually group activities, yet little aid is given to the teacher in the way of suggestions for the source of materials. In fact, conversation with some of the supervisors of the program suggested that real difficulty was being encountered in providing suitable teaching materials, and in bringing the teachers themselves to accept the radical departures from customary procedures which the plan involves. Still, these difficulties should not obscure for us the fundamental excellence of the program.

¹ *Plan y programas de enseñanza primaria urbana de El Salvador á regir desde el año de 1940* (Imprenta Nacional, San Salvador, 1940.)

Geographic Games and Tests

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Past numbers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES have contained series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series has been continued throughout the school year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased by

omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study.

This issue includes the answers to the games and tests published during the past school year. Reprints will be available.

G 48. EUROPE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN

SOME WHYS

WHY

1. Do most of the farmers live in villages, not in houses on their farms?
2. Are most fields not enclosed with fences?
3. Is it common in many parts of continental Europe for a farm to consist of many scattered pieces of land?
4. Do most houses in Egypt and Palestine have flat roofs?
5. Have the Dutch become noted for their cleanliness?
6. Is Europe a far less important customer than the United States for house paint?
7. Are the Scotch Highlanders clannish; the Swiss democratic; and the Balkans illiterate and unsocial?
8. In Norse mythology is heaven a place of warmth; hell of cold and mist; while in Palestine and Arabia hell is a place of heat—of eternal fire?
9. Is it common for the French farmer to share the same building with the domestic animals?
10. Is the Arab a nomad; the Egyptian a farmer; the Norwegian a sailor?
11. Do the houses of southern Spain or Italy often include an inner paved court?
12. Are most Swiss houses of wood; French of stone or brick; Egyptian of mud or sun-dried brick?
13. Is white bread widely used in France; brown bread in Germany?
14. Is animal manure commonly used for fuel in Egypt?
15. Are so many Egyptians afflicted with eye trouble?
16. Is the Scot noted for his thrift; the Hebrew for his love of trading; and the Arab for his love of horses?
17. Are there three religious days of rest in Palestine?
18. Do the Scandinavians use much fish?
19. Do laces, embroideries, carvings and artistic goods form a considerable item of export?
20. Do vegetables and vegetable oils play a larger part in the European diet than in that of the United States?

Answers to Geographic Games and Tests

G 21. A. THE HOUR-GLASS OF LEADING STATES

1—North Carolina; 2—Rhode Island; 3—Minnesota; 4—Florida; 5—Texas; 6—Arizona; 7—Wisconsin; 8—North Dakota; 9—Massachusetts.

B. SOME OF THE LANDS WE OWN

1—The book I bought is called "*Wake Up and Live*"; 2—About *midway* across the Pacific is a small island group; 3—His signal, "*Ask a pilot to guide us*," was heard by all; 4—The words "*ba-wa*," I informed her, were native expressions; 5—A *Panama* can always keep one's head rather cool; 6—An *American*, *Sam Oaks*, was the first volunteer; 7—The loss of his kingdom made *Philip pine* slowly away; 8—The paper spoke of "a cargo of *guano*," but they meant "*Guano*"; 9—These trees are *virgin*. *Is land* so cheap it has never been cleared? 10—The Spanish name "*Puerto Rico*" means "rich port."

G 22. THE GREAT LAKES AND THEIR CONNECTING WATERS

1—Sault Ste. Marie River & Sault Ste. Marie Canals; 2—Strait of Mackinac; 3—St. Clair R., Lake St. Clair and Detroit R.; 4—Niagara R. and Welland Canal; 5—St. Lawrence R. (with canals around rapids), Gulf of St. Lawrence and (1) Strait of Belle Isle, or (2) Cabot Strait; 6—New York State Barge Canal (Erie Canal), Hudson R., Upper Bay, The Narrows, Lower Bay; 7—Chicago R., Chicago Drainage Canal, Des Plaines R., Illinois R., Mississippi R., Gulf of Mexico.

G 23. OUR STATES AND THEIR EMPIRE ANCESTOR

Horizontal

1—Kan.; 3—N.Y.; 4—Mo.; 6—Br.; 8—Me.; 9—Ind.

Vertical

1—Ky.; 2—N.M.; 3—Neb.; 5—Ore.; 7—R.I.; 8—Md.

G 24. HOW WELL DO YOU REMEMBER THE UNITED STATES MAP?

1—Washington; 2—Oklahoma; 3—Michigan; 4—Nevada; 5—Louisiana; 6—Kentucky; 7—California; 8—Idaho; 9—New York; 10—Florida.

G 25. THE WORLD'S FORESTS AND THEIR USES

1—Quebracho; 2—Rubber; 3—Palm; 4—Tagua; 5—Teak; 6—Cork oak; 7—Spruce; 8—Maple; 9—Palm; 10—Mahogany; 11—Fir; 12—Bamboo; 13—Pine; 14—Cinchona; 15—Cacao—Coffee; 16—Dyewood; 17—Cedar; 18—Pine; 19—Ebony; 20—Willow; 21—Rose wood; 22—Pine; 23—Sequoia; 24—Mulberry; 25—Balsa.

G 26. A. THE SEVEN MOST USEFUL MINE PRODUCTS

1—The traffic *Cop* permitted him to go free; 2—The juice of an apple *added* to the beverage seemed to improve the flavor; 3—"I warn you, *Sir*, *only* a miracle can save your life"; 4—The drug "*alum*," I numbered among those we might still try; 5—The inspector discovered *cocoa* leaking from the package; 6—*Boiling* the meat longer made it tender; 7—The cheering, which at our distance was just a buzz, *increased* to a roar as we neared the crowd.

B. A TREASURE HUNT

1—Union of South Africa, or for industrial diamonds, Belgian Congo is correct; 2—Colombia; 3—Mexico; 4—Belgian Congo; 5—U.S.S.R.; 6—Japan; 7—Union of South Africa; 8—China; 9—Canada, Belgian Congo; 10—Australia.

G 27. SOME USEFUL PLANTS AND TREES

1—Flax; 2—Olive; 3—Cotton; 4—Coconut; 5—Oilpalm; 6—Castor; 7—Pines; 8—Tung.

1—Jute; 2—Hemp; 3—Flax; 4—Cotton; 5—Henequin.

G 28. PLACE NAMES

I.

D—Danube, Denmark, Denver; A—Arkansas, Argentina, Annapolis; N—Nile, New Zealand, Naples; C—Colorado, Canada, Chicago; E—Elbe, Ecuador, Edinburgh.

II.

L—Loire, London, Longs Peak; A—Amazon, Antwerp, Alps; K—Kanawha, Kiel, Kiolen; E—Euphrates, East St. Louis, Everest; S—St. Lawrence, Stockholm, Sierra Nevada.

III.

P—Pennsylvania, Placid, Pacific; L—Louisiana, Ladoga, Lyons; A—Alabama, Adriatic, Antarctic; I—Iowa, Irish, Indian; N—New York, North, New York.

G 29. FROM FARM TO FACTORY

1—Cereals; 2—Cotton; 3—Corn, Rye or Barley; 4—Straw; 5—Potatoes or Corn; 6—Sugar cane or Sorghum; 7—Corn cobs; 8—Broom corn; 9—Soyabean or Flaxseed; 10—Fruits—Berries; 11—Sugar cane or Sugar beet; 12—Swine; 13—Cattle (bones); 14—Cotton seed or Tallow; 15—Milk or Sugar; 16—Sheep; 17—Swine; 18—Sheep, etc.; 19—Swine; 20—Animal manure or Legumes; 21—Sheep; 22—Tallow or Wax; 23—Cattle; 24—Wheat; 25—Apples; 26—Swine; 27—Calves; 28—Sheep; 29—Tobacco; 30—Swine or Cattle; 31—Cream; 32—Hides; 33—Cabbage; 34—Cattle; 35—Cattle; 36—Calves; 37—Apples; 38—Cotton; 39—Cotton seed, Cattle; 40—Milk; 41—Nectar; 42—Barley or Hops; 43—Wheat or Rye; 44—Cotton seed, Soyabean or Corn; 45—Nectar; 46—Corn; 47—Cattle bone; 48—Soyabean; 49—Soyabean; 50—Tomato.

G 30. AMERICAN INDUSTRIES THAT NEED EACH OTHER

1—Copper's chief use is in the electrical industry; 2—Most iron ore is smelted with coke from coal; 3—Most water-power depends upon cement dams; 4—Much glass manufacture uses coal gas as fuel; 5—Much lead in paint needed for frame buildings; 6—Waterpower is much used for making aluminum; 7—Nickel-steel is used in building automobiles; 8—Concrete highways stimulated car building; 9—Paper making uses much water power; 10—Most ships are built of steel; 11—Shoes require much leather; 12—Automobile building requires much steel; 13—Tin cans are the largest users of tin; 14—Much steel pipe used for oil wells and pipe lines; 15—The chief use of linseed oil is in paint; 16—Most news paper is made of wood pulp; 17—Steel goods made by coal-driven machines; 18—Sulphuric acid is added to phosphate rock for fertilizer; 19—Automobiles are mostly powered by gasoline; 20—Beverages use glass containers.

G 31. SOME AMERICAN CROPS AND ANIMALS

1—Hay; 2—Rye; 3—Oats; 4—Corn; 5—Wheat; 6—Beans; 7—Cotton; 8—Apples; 9—Oranges; 10—Popcorn; 11—Soyabean; 12—Potatoes; 13—Broom corn; 14—Sweet corn; 15—Sunflowers; 16—Cantaloupe.

FINDING THE NAMES OF SOME DOMESTIC ANIMALS AND USEFUL INSECTS

1—Bees; 2—Meat (or Pork); 3—Sheep; 4—Mules; 5—Horses; 6—Cattle.

G 32. AMERICAN RAW MATERIAL REGIONS AND MANUFACTURING CENTERS

1—Raw cotton, Cotton cloth; 2—Rubber, Automobiles; 3—Livestock or Grain, Meats; 4—Iron ore, Steel; 5—Wheat, Flour; 6—Livestock, Meats; 7—Fish, Prepared fish; 8—Wood, Furniture; 9—Wheat, Breakfast foods; 10—Coke, Steel; 11—Wool, Carpets; 12—Salmon, Canned salmon; 13—Iron ore, Steel; 14—Steel, Automobiles; 15—Crude petroleum, Refined oils; 16—Oysters, Prepared oysters; 17—Bauxite, Aluminum; 18—Steel, Agricultural implements; 19—Milk, Dairy products; 20—Tobacco, Tobacco products.

G 33. "SEEING AMERICA FIRST"

1—Glacier Nat. Park, Mont.; 2—Yellowstone Nat. Park, Wyo.; 3—Mammoth Cave, Ky. or Carlsbad Caverns, Nat. Park, N.M.; 4—Lassen Peak, Calif.; 5—Crater Lake Nat. Park, Ore.; 6—Miss. Delta, La.; 7—Grand Canyon, Ariz.; 8—Mohave Desert, Calif.; 9—Niagara Falls, N.Y.; 10—Columbia Plateau, Wash.-Ore.; 11—Lake Superior; 12—Northern Ind.; 13—Red River Valley; 14—Great Salt Lake, Utah; 15—Alaska; 16—Arizona; 17—Fla. keys; 18—Virginia; 19—Lake Mead, Nev.; 20—Death Valley, Imperial Valley, Calif.; 21—Along the lower Mississippi; 22—Salt Lake City, Utah; 23—Dismal Swamp, Va.; 24—Trenton, N.J. to Augusta, Ga.; 25—Los Angeles, Calif.

G 34. OUR CITIES

1—Hollywood, Calif.; 2—Fall River, Mass.; 3—Los Angeles, Calif.; 4—Rochester, N.Y.; 5—San Francisco, Calif.; 6—Chicago, Ill.; 7—Paterson, N.J.; 8—Minneapolis, Minn.; 9—Boston, Mass.; 10—Houston, Tex.; 11—Boston, Mass.; 12—Akron, Ohio; 13—St. Louis, Mo.; 14—Duluth, Minn.; 15—Philadelphia, Pa.; 16—New York, N.Y.; 17—Houston—Galveston, Tex.; 18—New Orleans, La.; 19—Salt Lake City, Utah; 20—Chicago, Ill.; 21—Seattle, Wash.; 22—Detroit, Mich.; 23—Battle Creek, Mich.; 24—Chicago, Ill.; 25—Grand Rapids, Mich.

G 35. RIGHT OR WRONG IN THE UNITED STATES

1—(Wrong) Cleveland on Lake Erie is a great industrial city; 2—(Wrong) The Erie Canal, joining Lake Erie with the Hudson River, has been a great help to New York; 3—(Right); 4—(Right); 5—(Right); 6—(Wrong) The Welland Canal around Niagara Falls is a great aid to navigation; 7—(Wrong) Philadelphia on the Delaware River is one of our great ports; 8—(Right); 9—(Right); 10—(Right); 11—(Right); 12—(Right); 13—(Wrong) Of the underground products petroleum is the most important; 14—(Right); 15—(Wrong) Boulder Dam is built on the Colorado River; 16—(Right); 17—(Wrong) In general rainfall decreases northward from the Gulf of Mexico; 18—(Right); 19—(Wrong) Although mining no coal, New England is industrial; 20—(Wrong) Most of our mechanical power is now obtained from coal.

G 36. TO WHOM DO WE SELL? FROM WHOM DO WE BUY?

1—Formosa, Japan; 2—India; 3—Chile; 4—Chile; 5—Arg., Ur., India; 6—Japan; 7—Malay, Dutch E. Indies; 8—Malay; 9—Canada; 10—China; 11—Rhodesia; 12—Canada; 13—China; 14—Far East; 15—Japan, India, Ceylon; 16—Brazil.

G 37. OUR NORTHERN NEIGHBORS—A MAP EXERCISE

1—Ontario, Quebec; 2—Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba; 3—Prince Edward Island; 4—Ontario; 5—New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island; 6—Quebec; 7—Nova Scotia; 8—Northwest Territories; 9—Quebec; 10—British Columbia; 11—Northwest Territories; 12—Quebec; 13—Ontario; 14—British Columbia; 15—Alberta; 16—Ontario; 17—Northwest Territories; 18—Ontario; 19—Northwest Territories; 20—New Brunswick, Nova Scotia; 21—Ontario; 22—Ontario; 23—Quebec; 24—Quebec; 25—Northwest Territories.

G 38. OUR SOUTHERN NEIGHBORS—A STUDY OF MAPS

1—Cuba; 2—Mexico; 3—Puerto Rico; 4—Virgin Islands; 5—Cuba; 6—Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, Puerto Rico; 7—British Honduras; 8—Haiti; 9—Trinidad; 10—Honduras, Mexico, Jamaica; 11—Bahamas; 12—Jamaica; 13—Guatemala; 14—Bermudas; 15—Hispaniola; 16—Mexico; 17—Cuba; 18—Mexico; 19—Cuba; 20—Haiti; 21—Nicaragua; 22—Salvador; 23—Jamaica; 24—Jamaica; 25—Panama.

G 39. NATURAL FEATURES OF NORTH AMERICA

I. Lakes

1—Lake Winnipeg; 2—Lake Michigan; 3—Lake Champlain; 4—Lake Superior; 5—Great Bear Lake; 6—Lake Erie; 7—Great Slave Lake; 8—Lake Huron; 9—Great Salt Lake; 10—Lake Ontario.

II. Rivers

1—Mississippi; 2—Colorado; 3—Ohio; 4—Rio Grande; 5—St. Lawrence; 6—Columbia; 7—Mackenzie; 8—Yukon; 9—Hudson; 10—Missouri.

III. Islands

1—Vancouver Island; 2—Long Island; 3—Newfoundland; 4—Aleutian Islands; 5—Cuba; 6—Jamaica; 7—Hispaniola; 8—Puerto Rico; 9—Cape Breton Island; 10—Bahama Islands.

IV. Mountains

1—Green Mountains; 2—Rocky Mountains; 3—Blue Ridge; 4—Appalachian Mountains; 5—White Mountains; 6—Coast Ranges; 7—Mount McKinley; 8—Sierra Nevada; 9—Brooks Range; 10—Cascade Range.

G 40. PLACES OF NORTH AMERICA

A—Aleutian; B—Bahamas; C—Caribbean; D—Detroit; E—Everglades; F—Fraser; G—Greenland; H—Hudson; I—Imperial; J—Jamaica; K—Kansas; L—Labrador; M—McKinley; N—Newfoundland; O—Ontario; P—Panama; Q—Quebec; R—Rio Grande; S—Superior; T—Tampa; U—Utah; V—Vancouver; W—Washington; Y—Yucatan; Z—Zion City.

G 41. VISITING SOUTH AMERICA

1—North Chile; 2—Chincha Islands off Peru; 3—Southeastern Brazil; 4—Rio de Janeiro; 5—Aconcagua; 6—Atacama; 7—Titicaca; 8—Falkland Islands; 9—Trinidad; 10—Amazon; 11—Gran Chaco; 12—Lake Maracaibo Dist. in Ven.; 13—Southeastern Brazil; 14—Bogota; 15—Rio Casiquiare, Ven.; 16—Peruvian Central; 17—Pampa; 18—Amazon Valley (The Selvas); 19—Andes; 20—Trans-Andean, Chile-Argentina; 21—Chile; 22—Balsa; 23—Peru; 24—Incas of Peru-Bolivia Plateau; 25—Peruvian or Humboldt Current.

G 42. LATIN AMERICAN RAW MATERIALS

1—Linseed oil, Arg.; 2—Platinum, Colombia; 3—Hides, Arg. or Ur.; 4—Petroleum, Ven.; 5—Sugar, Cuba; 6—Chinchona bark, Peru; 7—Nitrate, Chile; 8—Copper, Chile, Peru; 9—Tin ore, Bolivia; 10—Coca, Peru; 11—Iron ore, Chile; 12—Tagua nuts, Ecuador; 13—Rubber, Brazil; 14—Mahogany, Honduras; 15—Coca, Peru; 16—Tobacco, Cuba; 17—Vanilla bean, Mexico; 18—Cattle, Arg.; 19—Wool, Arg.; 20—Wheat, Arg.; 21—Cattle, sheep, swine, Arg.; 22—Dyewoods, Brazil; 23—Silver, Mexico; 24—Chinchilla, Chile; 25—Bauxite, British and Dutch Guiana.

G 43. THIS REMINDS ME OF HOME!

1—South Chile; 2—Pampa, near Rosario, Arg.; 3—Pampa (western); 4—Buenos Aires; 5—Bogota; 6—Western Argentina; 7—Peru; 8—Titicaca; 9—Pampa; 10—Chile; 11—Vale of Chile; 12—Colombian Coast; 13—Patagonia; 14—Pampa; 15—Andes; 16—Brazilian Highland; 17—Lake Maracaibo District; 18—Pampa; 19—North Chile; 20—Rio de Janeiro.

G 44. ARE THESE CORRECT FOR SOUTH AMERICA

1—(Right); 2—(Wrong) Most of the world's rubber supply comes from the Malay Peninsula; 3—(Right); 4—(Wrong) The Panama Canal is of greater use to the western coast of South America than it is to the eastern coast; 5—(Right); 6—(Wrong) When it is noon in Chicago, according to the sun, it is afternoon in all of South America; 7—(Right); 8—(Wrong) In southern South America people find the climate more comfortable on the plains, in the northern part of the continent, on the plateaus or upper mountain slopes; 9—(Right); 10—(Wrong) Santos is the leading coffee port of Brazil; 11—(Right); 12—(Wrong) The most used river of South America is the Parana; 13—(Wrong) The vast forests of the Amazon basin furnish small quantities of lumber to the rest of

the world; 14—(Right); 15—(Wrong) A population map of the continent shows most of the people to be living on or near the coast rather than in the interior of the continent; 16—(Right); 17—(Wrong) The principal desert region is on the leeward side of the Andes Mountains; 18—(Right).

G 45. THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF EUROPE (1938)

1—France; 2—Germany; 3—Yugo-Slavia; 4—United Kingdom; 5—Spain; 6—Rumania; 7—Portugal; 8—United Socialist Soviet Republics; 9—Bulgaria; 10—Poland; 11—Denmark; 12—The Netherlands; 13—Finland; 14—Sweden; 15—Norway; 16—Italy; 17—Greece; 18—Ireland; 19—Hungary; 20—Belgium; 21—Turkey; 22—Switzerland.

G 46. EUROPE—IS IT TRUE?

(1938 Boundaries)

1—(Wrong) France with its abundant iron ore and Germany with its great coal deposits have in these possessions a basis for profitable exchange; 2—(Wrong) The Apennines serving as the "back bone" of Italy seriously reduces the proportion of cultivable land of that country; 3—(Wrong) Although it is so far north, the coast of Norway is not closed by ice in winter; 4—(Wrong) The Riviera is a famous winter resort on the Mediterranean coast of France and Italy; 5—(Right); 6—(Wrong) The Volga is the longest but not the most used river of Europe; 7—(Wrong) Since the principal relief features of Europe trend east-west the climatic influence of the ocean is felt far inland; 8—(Wrong) The Dardanelles-Mamora-Bosporus waterway allows ships to enter the Black Sea from the Mediterranean and Aegean Seas; 9—(Right); 10—(Wrong) Sicily, at the tip of the Italian peninsula, has a considerable winter rainfall; 11—(Wrong) Amsterdam, former Zuider Zee, is a great commercial rival of Rotterdam on the Rhine; 12—(Wrong) The Kiel Canal in Germany joins the Baltic with the North Sea; 13—(Right); 14—(Wrong) Danzig at the mouth of the Vistula is an important port; 15—(Right); 16—(Right); 17—(Wrong) The chief petroleum deposits of Europe are near Baku on the Caspian Sea; 18—(Wrong) The most used route to the sea for Swiss foreign trade naturally lies through Germany; 19—(Right); 20—(Wrong) The British Isles are in the latitude of Canada.

G 47. COMMODITIES WITH NEW WORLD PLACE NAMES

1—Salmon; 2—Limestone; 3—Nuts; 4—Coffee; 5—Onions; 6—Bacon; 7—Nitrate; 8—Grapes; 9—Coke; 10—Tobacco; 11—Tobacco; 12—Watches; 13—Cigars; 14—Ginger; 15—Cement; 16—Grapes; 17—Hats; 18—Rubber; 19—Tea; 20—Cotton; 21—Chickens; 22—Socks; 23—Prunes; 24—Watches.

G 48. EUROPE AND THE MEDITERRANEAN

SOME WHYS

1—A carry-over from feudal times when serfs lived close to the castle for protection; 2—Too expensive. Hedges are used in some places; 3—Due to the custom of dividing inherited real estate equally among all the heirs; 4—Cheaper, and in arid regions, they are practicable; 5—Extensive swamps and bogs have forced those who would survive to be extraordinarily clean; 6—Most European houses are built of stone, tile, brick, etc.; 7—Isolation due to the mountain environment is an important factor; 8—To those living where it is cold, hell, a place of punishment, is very cold and vice versa; 9—It is economical both in building and in heating; 10—These activities are largely the result of differences in the productivity of the land; 11—These courts are a cool retreat during the heat of the day; 12—Construction materials are determined by their availability; 13—Much of the north German plain is better suited for rye. Most of France is well suited to wheat (white bread); 14—Practically no other fuel for cooking is available to the poor; 15—Glare of the sun and lack of infant medical care; 16—Scots must be thrifty or starve. Hebrews long subject to persecution had to move about with their property. Scant rainfall forced the Arab to become a nomad; 17—Christian, Jew and Arab, each have a different day of rest; 18—Abundant supply; 19—A response to cheap skillful labor and limited raw materials; 20—Vegetable fats and oils are as a rule more economical than those from animals.

G 49. SOME EUROPEAN CITY-GROUPS AND THEIR SURROUNDINGS

1—Portsmouth; 2—Southampton; 3—Bremen; 4—Hamburg; 5—Turin; 6—Milan; 7—Genoa; 8—Venice; 9—Florence; 10—Belfast; 11—Glasgow; 12—Edinburgh; 13—London; 14—Amsterdam; 15—Rotterdam; 16—Antwerp; 17—Cardiff; 18—Bristol; 19—Lyon; 20—Geneva; 21—Marseilles; 22—Liverpool; 23—Manchester.

G 50. SOME EUROPEAN STRAITS AND CANALS AND THE WATERS THEY JOIN

1—Black Sea; 2—Bosporus; 3—Sea of Marmara; 4—Dardanelles; 5—Aegean Sea; 6—Atlantic Ocean; 7—Gibraltar Strait; 8—Mediterranean Sea; 9—English Channel; 10—Strait of Dover; 11—North Sea; 12—Tyrrhenian Sea; 13—Strait of Messina; 14—Mediterranean Sea; 15—Ionian Sea; 16—Strait of Otranto; 17—Adriatic Sea; 18—North Sea; 19—Skagerrak; 20—Kattegat; 21—Baltic Sea; 22—Ionian Sea; 23—Corinth Canal; 24—Aegean Sea; 25—Atlantic Ocean; 26—North Channel; 27—Irish Sea; 28—St. Georges Channel; 29—Atlantic Ocean; 30—North Sea; 31—Kiel Canal; 32—Little Belt; 33—Great Belt; 34—The Sound; 35—Baltic Sea; 36—Baltic Sea; 37—Gulf of Finland; 38—Lake Ladoga; 39—Lake Onega; 40—Stalin Canal; 41—White Sea.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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VENETIAN SHIPPING DURING THE COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION¹

The exhaustion of the oak forests in Italy and the revolutionary changes in rigging and in armament account for an apparent decline in Venetian commerce after 1492. It was not until the late sixteenth century that a marked decline set in. Thus, neither the Turks, as Lybyer showed in 1914, nor superior Spanish-Portuguese economic competition suddenly destroyed the Mediterranean trade of the Italian cities.

Venetian shipping consisted of long merchant galleys, which carried spices and other precious wares, and of round ships. The latter were high and wide, and depended entirely on sails. They were built for stability and heavy cargoes. The galleys were long, low, narrow and equipped with oars in addition to their sails. These long galleys carried spices chiefly. The bulk of the Venetian merchant marine was composed of round ships which were chiefly used for short trips. Only possibly thirty out of 300 were used for long voyages such as to England, for example. Even these carried about four times as much tonnage as twenty merchant galleys engaged in the long voyages. However, though of secondary importance, the long galleys, on the basis of value of cargo, greatly aided in affording Venice maritime supremacy.

The long galleys were built by the state while the round ships were built by private enterprise in private ship yards until the end of the fifteenth century when the state felt it necessary to build round ships. This government enterprise was necessary as a decline of private ship building was most severe between 1463 and 1488. This decline was due to competitors better supplied with materials.

The Venetians first complained against the small boats built in Istria on the eastern Adriatic. The state issued regulations against such ship-building. Then protests were raised against the Ragusans. As a result Ragusan ships were taxed heavily on entering any port under Venetian control. But this was circumvented by both the Ragusans and the Venetians, the former acquiring citizenship in Venetian cities of Dalmatia, and the Venetians buying or building ships in Ragusa or Dalmatia.

The Venetian ship-builders suffered from the competition of ships built in Genoa, Portugal, the Basque country and even England. When offers

of loans and increased freight rates failed to stimulate private Venetian ship-building the state was forced to build its own. State aid did not solve the problem for during the Turkish war, 1499 to 1502, the attempt to control the Cretan wine trade had to be abandoned. At this time there were only sixteen Venetian ships of the long galley type.

A new law of 1502 gave some impetus to the revival of ship building. The shippers' complaints, stated in a preamble of the law, said that their troubles were due to low freight rates, government taxes and obligations, restrictions on carrying salt and grain and competition from South-western Europe. In the new law round ships were allowed to load all cargoes excepting goods forbidden by the church, goods reserved for the galleys and Moorish merchants and their wares. Ship duties were lessened; minimum freight rates were set and generous bounties offered to builders of new ships. So great was the revival in the building of round ships that in 1507 the bounties were suspended. Prosperity for the private ship-builders was stimulated by the withdrawal of Portuguese and Spanish ships to sail the new ocean routes. This prosperity was not maintained without interruption owing to a shortage of ships in the years that followed. However, from 1540 to 1570 there is no sign of depression, but evidence that the number of large ships had doubled since 1500. Only the long galley fleets had been adversely affected by the discovery of the new sailing routes.

The decline in the long galleys was due to three major factors. First, the Portuguese had made inroads on the spice trade decreasing the Venetian imports from Alexandria about two-thirds. Venice had no trade in spices in Alexandria from 1505 through 1508 owing to a dispute with the Egyptian sultan. From 1508 through 1514 the Venetian spice imports were only one-fourth of what they had been before the Portuguese discoveries. After 1514 the records are not clear. At this time the round ships were allowed to carry spices. For these reasons, entailing a shortage of spices, the voyages of the long galleys were discontinued between 1509 and 1535. While the galleys lost trade after the Portuguese discovery, the round ships increased their trade up to 1560.

A second factor adversely affecting the galleys were the revolutionary techniques in sailing. New rigging in the guise of three masts and three sails was introduced in place of one mast and one sail on the round ships. This made them more manageable. Also the use of cannon and muskets gave them protection

¹ F. C. Lane, "Venetian Shipping During the Commercial Revolution," *American Historical Review*, XXXVIII (January 1933), 219-237.

from attacks. Thus the round ships had all the advantages previously possessed by the long galleys. Since their costs were less they displaced the galleys.

The third factor was the general decline in the Venetian ship-building industry owing to the exhaustion of the oak forests. After the war with Turkey, 1570 through 1577, a definite decline in her ship building industry was noticeable. The entry of foreign built ships into Venetian trade is evidence of the timber shortage in Venice. Foreign ships were forbidden to be used but through various subterfuges the restrictive laws were circumvented. Finally, in 1590 restrictions on the use of foreign built ships were removed. This decline in the supply of Venetian

oaks so essential as ship timber first became apparent about 1450, but by 1600 the decline seems to have been general throughout the Mediterranean countries.

Thus Venetian commerce was not suddenly destroyed by the Portuguese discovery but continued to carry a large volume until 1600. At this time the long galleys suffered serious decline and the Venetian commerce in general eventually declined because of the shortage of oak timber. Venetians could not well expand under these conditions and participate in trade to the Indies by the new routes since Venice depended on her competitors for supplies. Thus passed Venetian maritime supremacy.

A Renaissance Pedagogical Device

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A Renaissance code for the teaching of the classics offers the history teacher a valuable addition to the regular three-fold division of class time into review, study, and assignment.¹ For want of an English equivalent we can call this bit of sixteenth century methodology by its Latin name *Praelectio*. I have found it a very helpful device.

This is an overview or explanation of, or an introduction to the succeeding lesson. Its purpose is both to stimulate interest, and to clarify the difficulties that arise. Teachers are aware of the troubles pupils encounter in finding the core of a lesson, in understanding new terminology, in connecting the happenings in one country or section of a country with that of another, and in separating the essential points from the incidental.

True, many teachers use such a plan in giving their new assignment. That is good. I suggest that it be made a distinct part of the classroom work.

Too often the final bell finds the class in the midst of the day's discussion. There is a hurried assignment—for one can in a moment designate pages to be read or questions to be answered—and little thought for the next day. By making the *Praelectio* a definite period to consume a specified time, the danger of improper pupil preparation is lessened.

Each teacher will find some special ways of presentation. The following means I find worth while: (1) Give an oral overview of the matter. (2) Dictate an outline summary which the students should copy. (3) Designate on the map the scene of the activities of the next lesson. This would be of great value as an introduction to Napoleon's campaigns, or the battles of the Civil War. (4) Compare the new mat-

ter with some event of interest in current history to impress it on the minds of the students. A teacher could point out the resemblance between the sending of the Athenian ships to Corcyra before the Peloponnesian War with the American expedition to Iceland. (5) Have a pupil read the paragraph headings, which are usually in heavy print. (6) Describe the importance and results of a particular period. A preparation for the class on the Constitutional Convention might take the form of a short talk on the great achievement that was the Constitution. (7) A picture of what might have occurred is another way to emphasize the importance of an event. A good opportunity for the use of such a plan would be to suppose the Invincible Armada had been invincible and successful. Great caution should be used in this type lest some of the pupils think the supposition the actuality. (8) Another procedure can be applied as a means of interesting the students in the reading of biographies. Choose a well-written book, other than the text, and read certain passages, chosen for their aptness in capturing the interest and imagination of the pupils, much after the manner of the movie previews, which flash the most thrilling episodes on the screen, leaving in the youthful hearts a desire to return soon again."² (9) For certain topics charts provide excellent introductions. (10) Lastly, at times no better plan can be devised than the explanation of terms. Such a lesson might be the presidency of Andrew Jackson in which these key expressions need clarifying: "Spoils System"; "Nullification"; and "Kitchen Cabinet."

In some ways the divisional *Praelectio* is even more important. This is especially true in European history,

¹ *Ratio Atque Institutio Studiorum*, College of the Society of Jesus, (Rome, 1591), Chap. XV. Nos. 27, 28, 29, 30.

² W. B. Faherty, "Biography in the Teaching of History," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXXII (March, 1941), 106.

when the various countries are taken individually, and a connection has to be made between the facts learned about one and the contemporary events of a neighbor. To obviate confusion here, a chronological chart of the period could be made with dates in the margin and a vertical column for each major country and one for the minor countries taken collectively.

Many recent textbooks present the key thoughts before each section under such title as "Salient Facts," or "Major Understandings," thus saving the teacher the work of preparing his own introduction. Many periods of history are so distinct from the periods just before or after them, that a comparison of the new with the old is a fine method of introduction. The period in European history between 1848 and 1870 is so marked by change and ferment in western Europe that it stands in striking contrast to the stability of the period 1871 to 1914. Numbers 6, 7, 10 of the suggestions for class presentation could also be utilized.

A course *Prelectio* can be given in three ways: (1) the presentation of a framework of dates and facts; (2) an indication of certain definite trends; (3) a contrast of the world or country at the beginning and end of the period of study. If the first way is chosen, make these the criteria of the dates selected: the ease with which they may be learned, their importance, their connectivity with other events of importance. Dates such as 432, the coming of St.

Patrick to Ireland, or 1066, the battle of Hastings, or 1588, the defeat of the Armada, are easy to remember, as are those ending in zero. With a date such as 1815 you can connect many events: the Battle of New Orleans, the Congress of Vienna, the Battle of Waterloo.

Examples of the second method as applied to United States history are: the trend to centralization in American government; the growth of a spirit of compromise in disputes and later of a spirit of friendship between the United States and Great Britain. Population, power, size, resources, national origin of our people would be good bases for a contrast in a study of the United States from 1789 to the present day. In the course *Prelectio*, as in the divisional and daily, a combination of the various methods may be best, depending upon the materials to be taken.

In conclusion, the *Prelectio* presentation should not be a one-sided affair. Pupil activity is necessary for its success. Secondly, let me insist upon the fact that it should not take the place of the assignment, but the two should dovetail. Nor is it meant to do the pupil's work for him. It should aim to develop his interest and aid him in his own work by explaining the meaning of new words, by pointing out significant places on the map, by connecting one current of development with another, by arousing interest in men and places.

American Influence on Japan

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The United States returned her share of damages for our one gun war at Shimonoseki, where rebellious Japanese warriors defied their government, to build the breakwater protecting the exposed harbor of Yokohama. More recently, the *Panay* damages went back to Japan for more beds in the Red Cross hospital, built by American money after the earthquake of 1923, and for restoring historic shrines commemorating Japanese-American friendship.

We helped the Rising Sun to rise. Japanese even in Japan admitted this. Many nations brought Western civilization to Japan. But we played a special role because we sympathized with her difficulties in emerging from a seclusion of 250 years. We can be proud of this record in spite of the disillusionment of Pearl Harbor. The most ardent international idealist might find in our contributions a commendable program for post-war reconstruction anywhere.

We know that our country is powerful. We tend to overlook, however, the great variety of effects, often unpredictable, of the experience and principles

of our civilization when carried abroad. More than ever, we must face frankly the good and bad results if we are serious about our role in world history. It is not our fault that Japan did not fuse Western and Japanese culture into a fertile, peaceful unity or that her remarkable imitativeness went awry. Not every innovation in the East is necessarily the result of specific Occidental influences.

The ships *Lady Washington* and *Grace* first showed the American flag at Nagasaki in 1791. Here through the Dutch, practically prisoners but the only foreign traders permitted in Japan, the government first heard of the independent United States in 1809. A little later, officials may have learned something from the manuals devised by American missionaries for use in China, including that remarkably pervasive history of America written by Elijah Bridgman, the first American missionary to China.

The increasing number of whaling ships in the Pacific which needed supplies and protection, and

(Continued on page 319)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

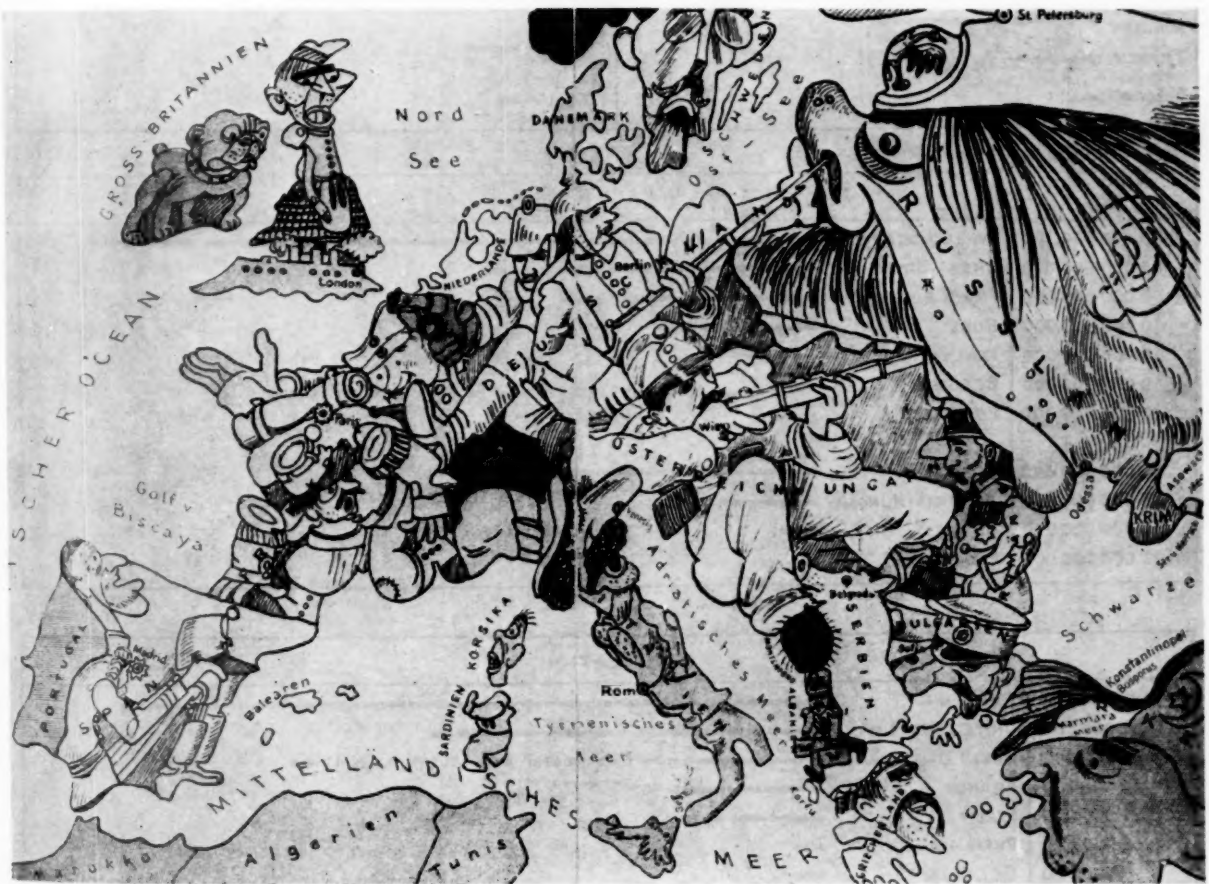
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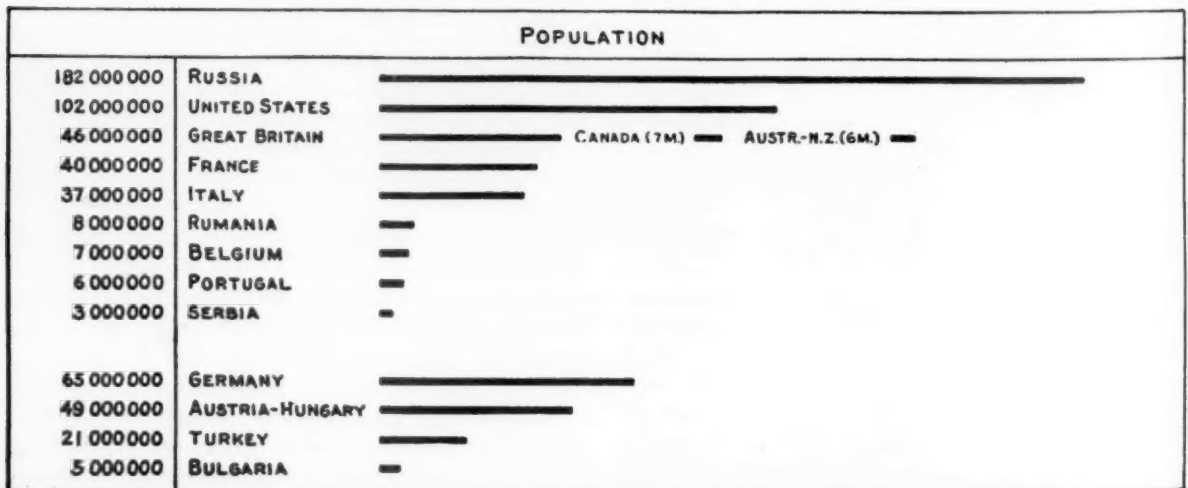
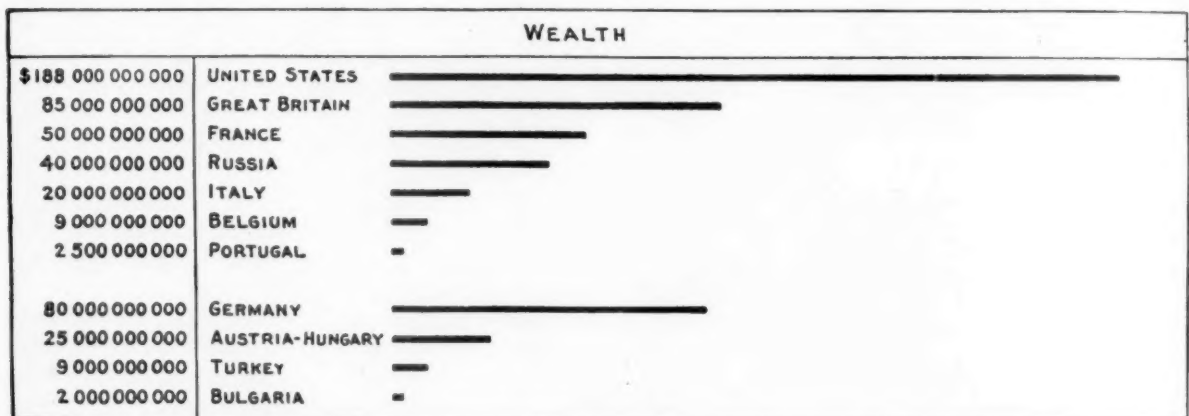
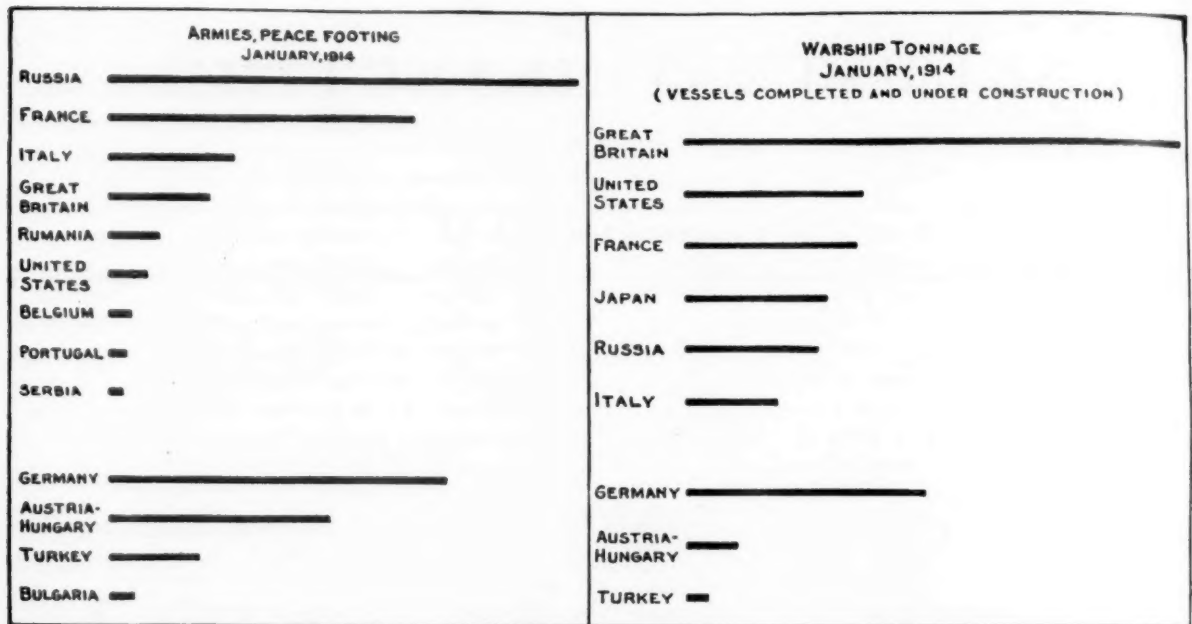
Edited by DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
New York University

THE FIRST WORLD WAR - 1914-1918



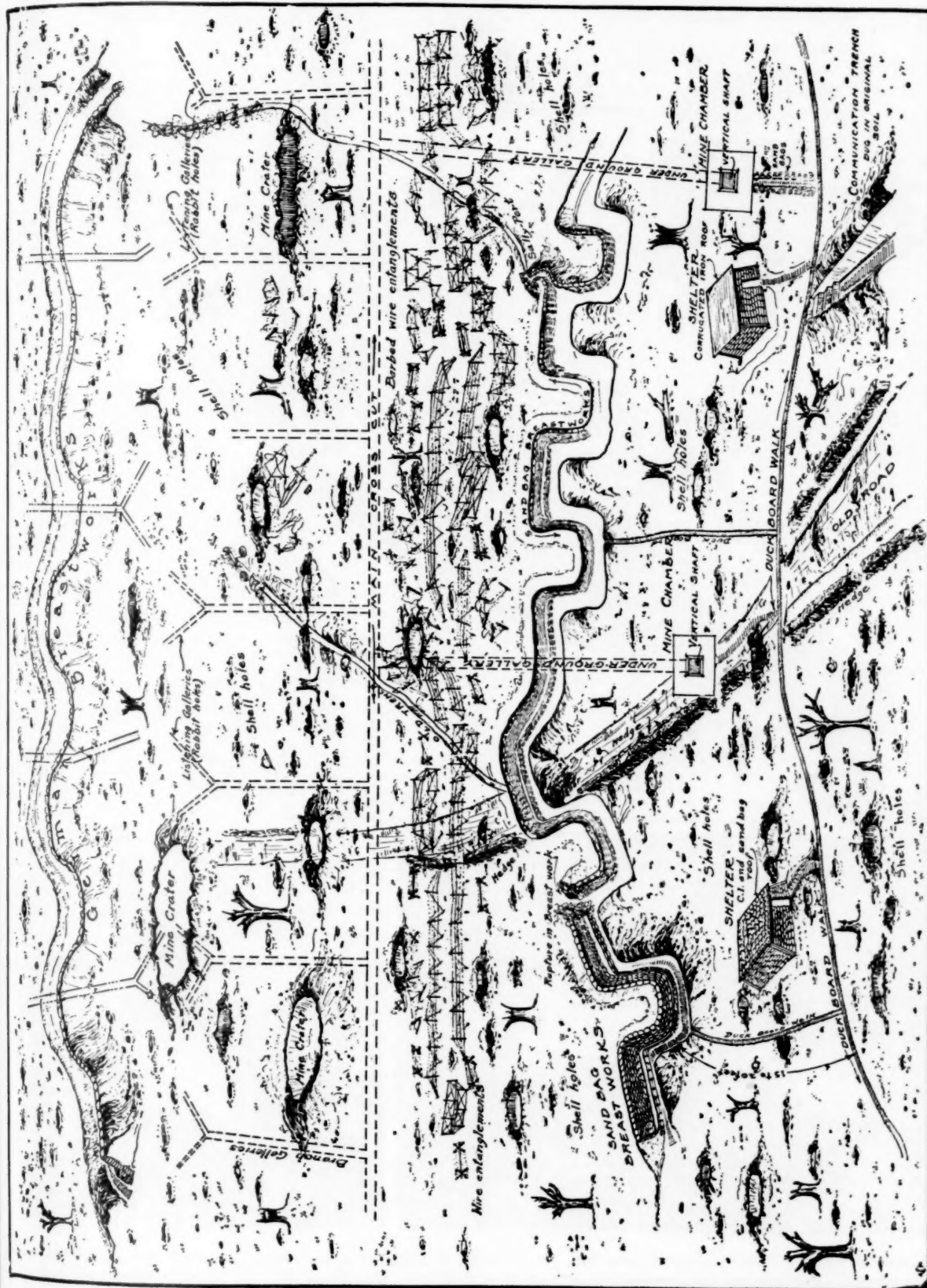
This cartoon map which appeared in the German periodical, *Das Plakat* (published from 1910 to 1921) is suggestive of the role played by the different nations in the struggle. It represents the situation at the outbreak of the war.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR



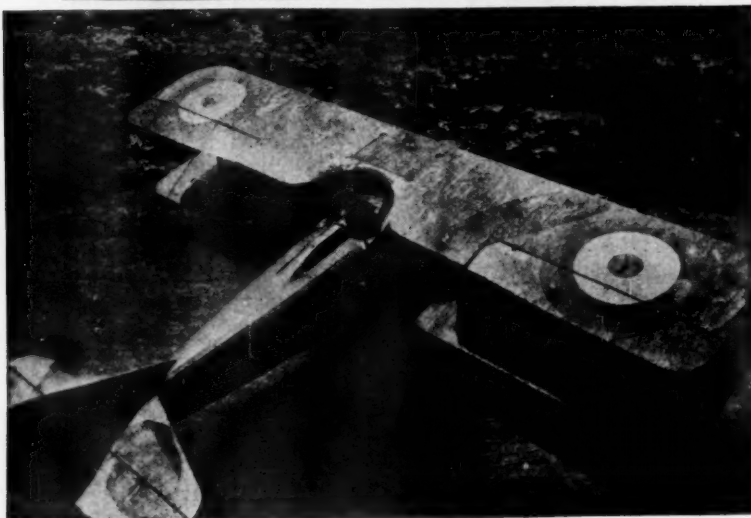
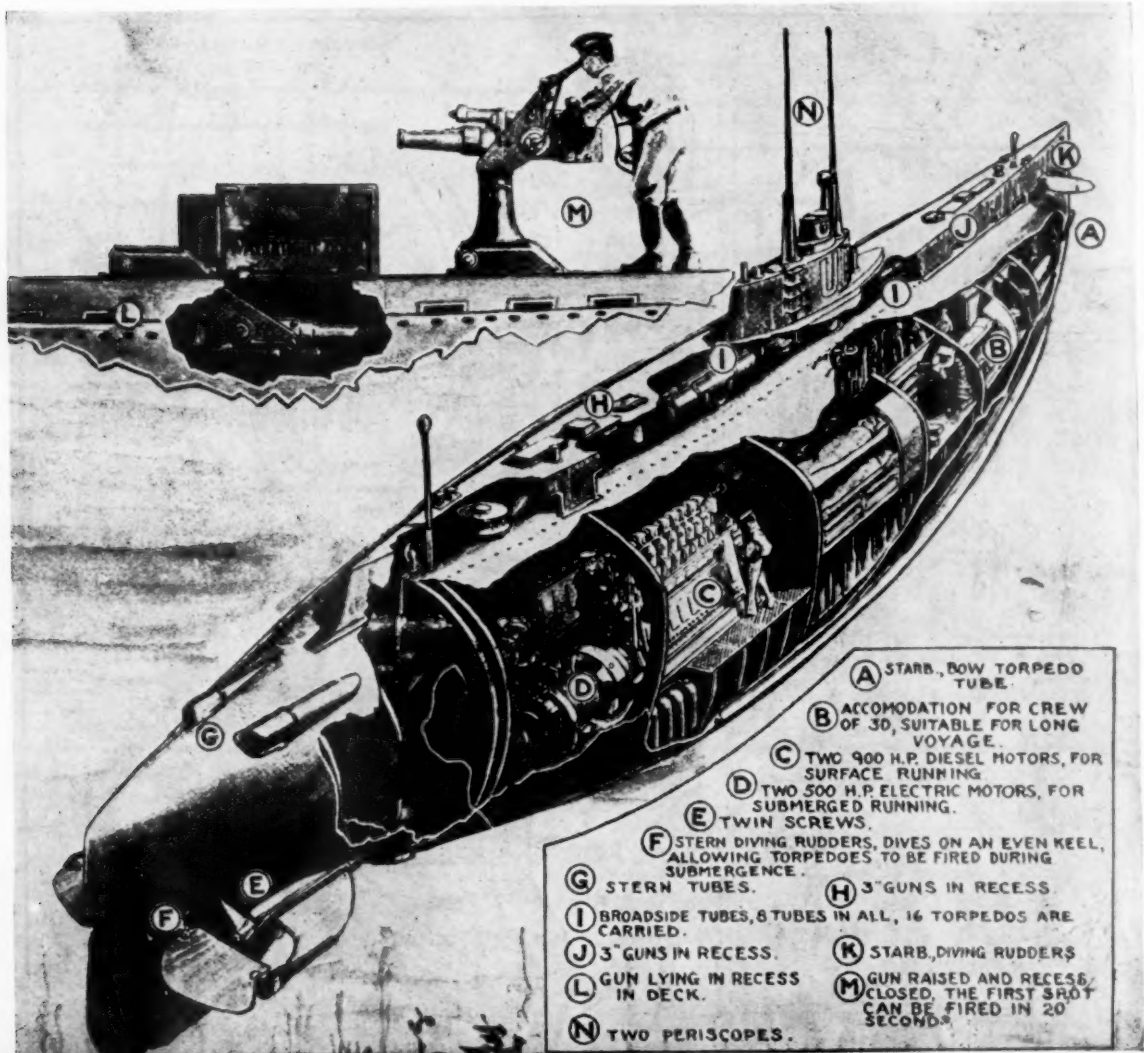
The relative strength of the great powers at the outbreak of war is shown in the graphs above. They are arranged in two groups, the Allies and the Central Powers.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR



The nature of trench warfare, so characteristic of this struggle, is illustrated in this contemporary sketch by a British soldier. It appears in Captain H. D. Trowace's *Fighting the Boche Underground*, published in 1918.

THE FIRST WORLD WAR



Several new war machines made their appearance, anticipating the highly mechanized warfare of the Second World War. The submarine already had been developed but received its baptism of fire at this time. The type above is of German origin. Such airplanes as the Spad became the eyes for the army. The Tank made its appearance on the battlefield February 2, 1916. The type shown here was used by American soldiers for training purposes.

our expanding Eastern trade in the days of the clippers increased our desire to "open" Japan. Typical American advertising circulars had been poured upon the Dutch traders in the 1840's, but got no further.

Japan was seething with revolution and was ripe for a new era when Commodore Perry caused a panic and hastened the process by steaming into Yokohama Bay, July 3, 1853, with the largest fleet ever seen by the Japanese. He conveyed the idea that we were a great naval power, which we were not. Later, Townsend Harris, our first consul dropped off a warship, worked miracles during his lonely and dangerous vigil between 1856 and 1858, and like Perry, he persuaded the ruling prince, the Shogun at Tokyo, to sign treaties for opening the country. That the Shogun did this without securing the approval of the Emperor, practically banished in Kyoto, became a pretext for rebellion. Unwittingly, by 1868 we helped the Mikado regain power and glory such as he had not enjoyed for 200 years.

Had other more greedy powers opened Japan, the course of her history might have been very different and less pleasant. A British historian declared that Harris's services were "not exceeded by any in the entire history of the international relations of the world." The Japanese fired a salute for Harris on Washington's birthday, 1857, with two brass howitzers, exact copies of the one given them by Perry. They first learned European requirements in furniture by copying his chairs, tables and beds. Baron Masuda, then a youngster attached to Harris's residence, the Temple of Peace and Happiness, recalled how he stole meat, a rarity that Harris provided for his official visitors; he stated: "We all believed it was necessary to eat meat in order to become more civilized and more powerful." Harris gave the officials important lessons in political economy, how export duties were an evil, how revenue might be gathered through sane tariffs.

At first the Japanese could not differentiate Westerners. Said one: "You all have fierce, staring eyes, prominent noses, and white skin." But soon they knew what they wanted from their teachers. Probably there were never more than 2,000 white Americans resident in Japan at any one time, but the role of Westerners was out of all proportion to their numbers. The American-born Japanese there, estimated at 15,000, hardly count as adequate representatives of our civilization. (But some of them studying at Tokyo did introduce American football on Thanksgiving Day, 1934.)

Americans in Japan, and the strange American characteristic of revealing all the secrets of forts and factories, turned the first explorations toward us. Already wearing American shoes and pleased with our tobacco, the investigating embassy of 1860, loaded down with samples of almost everything, returned to build western houses, to form commercial

companies along Western models, and assume important careers in finance, journalism and politics. At the suggestion of Guido Verbeck, an Americanized Dutchman, another embassy of 1872, half of its personnel being Verbeck's students, stopped first in the United States on its world tour to secure the revision of treaties and to analyze America. One whole volume of its elaborate reports is devoted to our social life, amazing growth, and cosmopolitan character. They were impressed by the fact that we were willing to learn from all nations.

Those who went on these explorations returned with ideas and experiences which distinguished them from their fellow countrymen. Missions such as that of 1872 might fail diplomatically but otherwise be very important. While investigating the financial and economic measures adopted here to wage World War I, the great statesmen, Viscount Ishii, summed up: "You gave to us of your best."

He must have referred in part to the work of American missionaries who even while the old edicts against Christianity still stood tried to reach the Japanese through preaching, teaching and public welfare work. About three-fourths of the Protestant missionaries have been American. The Bible spread in translation beyond the small Christian population which numbered 300,000 in 1933. An important fact is that the Americans put the Bible into popular language, thus helping here, as in several other countries, to establish the modern national language.

Often zeal for the new civilization rather than religious motives brought converts from a people who did not respond easily to exclusive monotheism or to the doctrine of original sin. Theological disputes and denominational jealousies in the United States often disturbed the Japanese mission field. After Japan had been taught in Congregationalism and Presbyterianism, the arrival of the Unitarians and Universalists caused perturbation. Many Japanese who studied here naturally contrasted the professions and practice of a Christian country; others were alienated by the prevailing ultra-conservatism of theology. Christian sectarianism may not have puzzled the Japanese unduly, but they often insisted that Christian ideals were too elevated for average use in business and domestic life. Several Americans devoted themselves to co-operative missionary programs and union churches. Theological seminaries followed American models; famous preachers, like Beecher and Talmage, had a wide influence.

The presence of an energetic rival forced Buddhism to improve its doctrines and organization, and to revitalize ethical reform, philanthropic work, sectarian schools, the education of women, and newspapers, all in a new atmosphere of activity. Conservative officials sometimes professed to see a close relationship between Christianity and Japanese liberalism. This caused trouble for both Christianity

and Japanese liberalism in the periods of reaction.

America may not have been mature, as foreign commentators frequently insisted, but it had a fighting belief in education which worked wonders for Japan, even though the principles of individuality and freedom in our scheme of universal education, if left unchecked, might have proved too dangerous for her feudal society. The more important clans opened schools largely taught by Americans. Verbeck organized and taught in a government school many of the men prominent in the Restoration of 1868; he followed to Tokyo to be head of the Imperial University and found time in his busy days of advising to send important essays to the government on the subject of the freedom of conscience and of the press.

Fukuzawa, a pioneering Japanese educator, brought back from San Francisco a strong belief that practical education was the key to national success, and a copy of Webster's *Dictionary* which persuaded him that English, not Dutch, was the key to western civilization. His private school, now Keio University, had a bias for English and American studies. Two of the political leaders, Okubo and Kido, became convinced that it was desirable to elevate the common people through education after a visit in 1871 when they were amazed by our citizens' intelligence on election issues. Japanese have often indicated that the success of our government depended on an educated citizenry.

There was an intimate connection between American education and the slight growth of liberalism after 1868. The authorities decided therefore in 1872 to adopt the cut and dried French system which soon proved impracticable. They then called in the American, David Murray, who worked for six years to extend the school system throughout the country. Germans were added to temper the American influence with Prussian ideals.

Our educational influence has been strong especially at the elementary level and through our curriculum organization and textbooks, including the famous Marcus Wilson *Reader*. Americans started the normal schools which reached the primary teacher who bought his supplies from us. Night schools of the Y.M.C.A. type and our system of lecture courses for public instruction were used. Americans often worked in the fields neglected by the government: education for bourgeoisie girls, kindergartens, and settlements. The humane doctrines of Pestalozzi were transmitted through us. Our influence continued apace through William James and John Dewey, mental tests, educational surveys, the Dalton and Gary plans.

Joseph Hardy Neesima, who ran away for an education at Amherst, built up the Doshisha University at Kyoto with American support. About 5,000 Japanese students of both sexes have studied in this country, probably more than ever went to Europe.

This is important because it has often been said that those who went first to Europe became pro-European while those who came here first became pro-American. The experience of the returned scholars has penetrated all classes.

Only slowly did the public and officials recognize that the Christian schools did not threaten the morale of the nation. Saionji, an "Elder Statesman," said of a Christian university: "As regards scholarship it is the second private school in Japan; as regards the moral character of its students, it is the first." The lectureship on American civilization at the Imperial University was criticized a few years ago, not so much by the Japanese as by resident Europeans who declared that Americanism has enough exponents.

Many governments made greater efforts than we did to get their nationals appointed as experts and advisers. When various powers tried to have the Americans dismissed, Congress amended the act of August 1856 so that our diplomatic officers might recommend their fellow citizens. Between 1869 and 1900, as many as 1,200 Americans were among the "salaried foreigners" hired by the government to raise foreign loans, write laws and treaties, and develop schemes of internal revenue. Many got high Orders of the Rising Sun.

"Improve the soul and mind and heal the body"—appealed to Americans as a complete program. The first form of Christian work to win admiration was medical service. Medicine was the first science to profit by intercourse with the West, partly because the natives deemed it expedient to learn about the strange gunshot wounds of the "barbarians."

Dr. James C. Hepburn, the pioneer American physician at Yokohama in 1859, won the necessary prestige for modern medicine by performing a successful leg operation on a celebrated actor whom he provided with an ingenious artificial leg. A young samurai took Dr. John Berry's skillful eye operations as a Christian text to show that all were brothers because God obviously made the eyes of the East and West alike. Berry conducted the first study class, with proper oriental ceremony, of human anatomy by dissection.

Shrewd patients learned from these doctors the values of foreign drugs and started the first and very profitable wholesale drug firms. The young Murai, advised to stop smoking by Berry who gave him an American reform tract on the dangers and waste of smoking, decided immediately on reading it to go to America to learn how to manufacture cigarettes; Murai returned to build one of the great fortunes of the East, based largely on tobacco.

American medical and surgical books continued to be used from the beginning, and so were American and English teachers until the Dutch advised the Japanese to turn to Germany. The surgeon general of the Japanese navy declared that his country's surgery was based on the work of the Philadelphian, Dr.

Samuel D. Gross, whose *System of Surgery* became widely known through a Japanese translation of a German version. But Gross, had earlier made a deep impression on the doctors in the mission of 1860 who watched him at work in his Philadelphia clinic. When Japan began a licensing system, the examining officials and the students crammed on Henry Hartshorn's compendium.

In the seventies, Dr. Sensai Nagayo, for long the head of the sanitary bureau, was sent here to study our medical education and public health system. He also attended the Medical Congress at the Centennial Exposition of 1876, the first Japanese representative at an international congress. Here he learned methods for birth and death statistics, disease prevention, water and sewage systems, and regulations for food and drink. Nippon gave us credit for her rapid progress in sanitary science.

Nurses' training schools and hospitals were started by Americans. An American woman, Linda Richards, is called "the mother of Japanese nurses." The Empress herself decreed that the nurses' school uniforms should be Western: pointed toe shoes, pinched-in waist, tight sleeves, full skirts—but purple! Two Americans began modern dentistry there; American-trained students still have the largest practices. An American laid the basis of a modern penal system, and encouraged the formation of orphanages and reformatories. Japanese temperance leaders declared that only the success of prohibition in the United States could make it possible in Japan.

It was through Verbeck, often called the father of modern scientific education in Japan, that the first students came officially blessed to the United States in 1866. Professor E. S. Morse, the first to lecture on evolution in Japan, introduced anthropology there, and began research on the aboriginal race of Japan. Americans, by their curiosity, have frequently awakened foreigners' interest in their own countries. Along with other Americans, he introduced zoology and founded what was to become the Tokyo Zoological Society. The Japanese pioneer of modern botanical science was graduated from Cornell University. An American set up the first chemical laboratory in the domain of a provincial war lord. Other Americans made notable contributions in meteorology, including the study of the force of gravity on the summit of sacred Fujiyama, seismology, magnetism, and experimental chemistry. An American founded the Asiatic Society of Japan. We helped to chart the regions of Japan—witness *Tuscarora Deep*, 4655 fathoms down off northeastern Japan, named after our warship the *Tuscarora*. The progress of American sciences in recent years checked the tendency to neglect English for higher learning.

The economic structure of Japan has responded to America in many ways. Even before Perry, there seems to have been an American in charge of what

was the first machine spinning and weaving factory. Her industry has been affected by both Europe and America. She gained much in knowledge and equipment from us. Perry donated a telegraph set so that the "useful instruments of Western civilization" might persuade the Japanese to abandon exclusiveness. A young American on his own helped to improve and extend the postal system. In 1873, Americans helped to establish the manufacturing of paper in foreign style. American experts and textbooks guided the chemical industry when Germany was engaged in World War I.

American engineers taught the science of mining. The native who began the petroleum industry started with American machines, and our latest designs are used now in the principal oil district, Echigo. The engineer who built the first American railroad in Japan with remarkable speed in 1882 also surveyed the water supplies of Japan's large cities. Merely by improving trawling and canning methods on American models, the Japanese rapidly expanded their great food supply—the fishing industry.

American and Japanese capital, skill, management and marketing have cooperated successfully, as with the Osaka Gas Company and the Tokyo Electric Company. The first electric supply came from dynamos based on Edison's. In railroads, power and communications systems, the Japanese have often drawn on American experience. Americans demonstrated the use of labor-saving machinery in the reconstruction after the disaster of 1923. Eighty per cent of Japan's cars and trucks are Fords and Chevrolets.

Until recently, eighty-five per cent of Japan's silk, the basis of her export economy, came to us. Her prosperity depended greatly on America where every slight business revival improved Japan's agrarian life.

The study of economics has often been based on American texts, beginning with the once popular treatises by Francis Wayland and Francis Walker. The Japanese followed our patent laws and imitated our tariff commissions. American arguments pro and con on bimetallism and high tariffs were repeated often with slight meaning for the domestic situation. Our nationalistic and high protectionist Henry Carey was widely read. On the great Ito's suggestion, our financial and banking system became the basis for Japan's. Visitors were fascinated by the trustworthy precision of the Philadelphia Mint, and Japan's decimal system and currency closely followed ours. The presence of foreign merchants determined the tremendous growth of cities like Kobe and Yokohama. The foreign communities on the whole made for better legal protection of personal rights and a higher standard of commercial morality. Stores catered to western taste: "Shirts tailed and retailed here." Jinrikishas, originating from an American baby carriage rebuilt for a crippled missionary, were a common sight by 1871.

Nowhere has American influence been more concentrated than in the now very mysterious and closely-guarded northern island of Hokkaido, one-fourth as large as the rest of Japan proper and with a climate like that of New York State. Here the Japanese could relieve their population pressure if they would but adhere to the blueprints furnished by Americans. Japan's frontier island, Hokkaido, was a bulwark against Russia and her governor, Kuroda, turned to the greatest colonizing nation for lessons, the first clear-cut indication that the Japanese wanted Western knowledge and were determined to get it. The capable reports to the special bureau, Kaitakushi ("The Opening of the Land"), were very optimistic about the future for settlers—but the Japanese disliked the cold in spite of the substantial dwellings with window panes built on General Horace Capron's recommendations.

The extensive geological surveys were the beginning of scientific survey work in Japan. Sapporo, the capital, is laid out with wide and straight streets. The government adopted many features of our rectangular method of surveying, homestead laws, land valuation, taxes and duties. Here to develop natural resources and to promote the general welfare, Americans founded and managed the agricultural college, modeled after the one at Amherst, through which American implements, techniques and products spread to all of Japan.

Cross-cut saws, stump pullers, sulky, stubble and side-hill plows, haymaking and drainage apparatus, and spades—and their Japanese imitations—tamed this province. American wheat, suitable varieties of corn (including the Longfellow), and potatoes (like the American Wonder and Rural New Yorker) were raised with success. Our northeastern trees flourished. The work here marked an epoch in fruit culture, especially with superior varieties of apples. American seeds had an even greater effect on vegetables than on crops. Hokkaido stimulated the production of potatoes, brought cabbage and tomatoes to the Japanese table, and made onions an item of export. American model farms and barns, with American breeds of cattle, sheep, hogs, and horses, improved the native stock. The American "Trotter" was so useful that farmers there still use "Whoa" and "Back." The Emperor's favorite horse, which could now eat Kentucky blue grass, stemmed from an American stallion. Here we introduced churns, buttermaking, milk powder, and the making of beet sugar. An American circus-manager, dubbed "professor" by naive natives, started the first dairy and ice-house.

By examples and deeds, Americans have also tried to elevate the status of Japanese women whose lot has not been a happy one. The intelligence and freedom of American women constantly impressed Japanese notables in this country. We first offered education to the neglected girls. In 1872, the Japanese gov-

ernment, duly impressed, pioneered by sending five girls to receive training here. The youngest, Ume Tsuda, returned, thoroughly Americanized, to start a college for women. Our money helped to reconstruct Tsuda College in 1923 and added a library of feminist literature. Americans started and headed Kobe, the oldest women's college which was maintained with American funds up to 1940.

Margaret Sanger, leader of the birth control movement, startled Japan almost as much as Perry, and Japanese social workers, often liberals like Baroness Ishimoto, have continued to draw inspiration from the rights and activities of American women. Although Nippon's women are not so bold or independent, Admiral Nomura observed, they enjoy our movies, fiction and fashions. The contrast has been so sharp that Japanese commentators have often described our civilization as "feminine," adding that American men lacked spiritual depth, were too practical and materialistic in a youthful, optimistic "land of emotion."

We contributed greatly by bringing track and field sports, basket ball, volley ball, football and baseball to Japan, helping along with exhibition tours of all-star teams. Baseball, introduced as far back as 1880, has become the national sport, and organized cheering and bloody rivalries came along with it. Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig were popular heroes. Walter Hagen taught the Emperor golf technique. The Japanese, who noted the physical progress made by the Filipinos under American coaching, benefited from the Far Eastern Olympiad which was initiated by the Philippines.

Almost eighty per cent of the foreign films shown in Japan came from Hollywood. Their force, both directly, and indirectly through Japanese "foreign style" films, with long-haired and American tailored heroes courting a la Hollywood, has been striking. Films were heavily censored, but enough was left so that the running explanatory comment by the interpreters could be anti-American. The Japanese tolerate no kissing, and no fun could be directed against royalty. *Mutiny on the Bounty* was viewed as too revolutionary; *Zola* was rejected because of corruption in the court scenes and intrigues in the general staff. These films caused a decline in hara-kiri while suggesting other forms of suicide, including the love-pact or double suicide. They inculcated appreciation for comedies and popularized the sport of boxing. The films admittedly stirred the imagination by depicting an ample, vigorous life, westernized habits, and, many argued, ruined the native Spartan spirit.

By 1873, local Kobe papers carried telegraphic news from the United States. A castaway educated and naturalized here, "American" Heco, the father of Japanese journalism, picked up what he knew from us. Impressed by the role of newspapers, Fukuzawa became a pioneer journalist after his visit. Hoe

presses, papers seven days a week, cartoons, female reporters, large headlines, in fact, the whole newspaper structure became increasingly Americanized. The yellow journals, which pretend to copy us, relished reprinting our morbid and sensational news to give the impression of America's degeneracy. Several American papers were established, including the well-known *Japan Advertiser*. News agencies followed the lead of the Associated Press; an American organized the national news agency.

Hepburn's English-Japanese dictionary was the key to open the East to the West. Longfellow's *Psalm of Life* was one of the first poems translated. The first popular world history was that by Peter Parley whose easy English was accepted as a model. American book imports have often equalled those from any other country. Writers from Emerson, Irving and Longfellow down to Margaret Mitchell's *Gone with the Wind* have been popular. One of the great admirers of Walt Whitman was the prominent author and social worker, Takeo Arishima. His suicide pact in 1923 with an ardent feminist was sensationally reported so as to discredit liberalism and feminism.

The Japanese have been able to differentiate English and American literature. One of their poets, Noguchi, a devotee of Joaquin Miller, hailed modern American literature as breaking away from traditional models. Touched by our desire to organize, a literati returned to form one of the first literary societies. The modification of the language under Western modes of thought has been great. About 5,000 Western words are in vogue, many of them via America. Should we add here that it was one of our restless expatriates, Lafcadio Hearn, who produced twelve books to build up Japan the Romantic?

Western philosophical ideas were widely and most simply disseminated through Emerson. Utilitarianism, primarily from England and America, had a vogue. From 1910 to 1920, American philosophers of the pragmatic school dominated the field. Students have followed closely the results of American psychologists and rural and urban sociology.

The Japanese, who were accustomed to intoning in their ceremonies, could relish old New England chants. With some effort, they used the old familiar hymns. An American helped to start what became the Imperial Conservatory of Music. Luther W. Mason gave musical education a great impetus when the government asked him to supervise the introduction of Western music and to harmonize it with the Japanese. Folk songs were blended with Japanese poems. The young people now prefer Western music on radio programs.

Even stranger, it was an American professor, Fenollosa, who helped to restore Japan's interest in her own artistic traditions when the artists were rushing into servile imitation of the West. This led to the first official art exhibition, and Fenollosa be-

came a manager of the Tokyo Fine Arts Academy and the Imperial Museum. An American, using an English baroque style, designed the Shimboshi railroad station in Tokyo to set the fashion for stations throughout the country. The American-designed Imperial Hotel, which stood amid the ruins of quake-torn Tokyo, was mute testimony to the qualities of our architecture and structural engineering. Urban school houses have been changing from wood to concrete under American influence.

More important was the sketching of our fortresses and military equipment from the very first visit down to the latest airplane, a practice we permitted with uncommon generosity. The first embassy in 1860 saw Fortress Monroe, then our best, piece by piece, while its artists filled notebooks with sketches. At the Washington Navy Yard they studied the famous Dahlgren rifled cannon which filled them with envy. We gave them ordnance and munitions. Several important naval officers cut their eye-teeth at Annapolis; others rose to eminence as shipbuilders and naval architects after serving in our shipyards. At least one American has been an inspector-general and rear-admiral in the Japanese navy. The Shogun's government ordered hundreds of manuals on "Artillery Practice," "Infantry Drill," and "Bridge Building," from American publishers.

The first ocean-going warship sent from Japan came to our shores; we donated the cost of repairs for the *Kanrin* so it could return. Committed to neutrality, we helped the new Imperial government to its feet during the civil war by refusing to deliver a warship ordered by the Shogun. Before the current European war, Japan got fifty-six per cent of her essential war supplies from us, and later, as much as ninety per cent of her scrap iron, steel and copper and a large portion of her aircraft and parts.

The word "democracy" came into use only because it can be expressed solely by circumlocution in Japanese. Western thought acted as a liberating power, but not always toward liberalism. Many students learned their English from the American Constitution. The decrees announcing the Restoration ruled that officials should be changed after four years' service, a curious mis-application of our "spoils system." American political ideas and organization worked on Count Okuma's Progressive Party and the Social Democrats. Although our laws and institutions were studied, and the constitution-maker, Ito, wore out his copies of Wheaton's *International Law* and Hamilton's *The Federalist*, republicanism had little meaning. Ito returned from his world tour an ardent admirer of Bismarck and pleased with the Prussian Constitution as an acceptable model for Japan's constitution of 1889.

The increasing development of capitalism in the twentieth century made the picture of American democracy only slightly more applicable. Under

American guidance, Tokyo copied the New York Bureau of Municipal Research to arouse a deeper interest in urban improvements throughout Japan. But the distressing fact remains that many of those who became ardent republicans after a sojourn here turned into the most conservative supporters of absolutism—or were assassinated.

Some socialistic thought came from our country in a mixture of the philanthropic and humanitarian teaching of Christianity. Bellamy's widely read *Utopia, Looking Backward*, struck fire. Henry George's land-nationalization theories got a hearing. Labor, when workers were still looked upon as serfs or criminals, turned to us for guidance. The origin of the epoch-making Association for the Formation of Labor Unions in 1897 and the Workmen's Society in Tokyo can be traced back to a handful of Japanese who were working and studying in San Francisco. The union they recommended was a moderate American Federation of Labor.

But in a broader political sense we were more effective. America has tried to infuse the masses of Asia with a consciousness of their own dignity and duties, a sense of personal and national responsibility—a task, declared a Japanese peer, "which Europe not only neglected, but positively refused to perform on every occasion." Alone among the Western powers, we wanted equality of privileges and Asiatic states strong enough to guard their independence. It was the United States which sympathized most with the revision of treaties which still fettered Japan, and we took the initiative toward limiting extraterritoriality. Japan was first recognized as an equal in a postal convention with us in 1873. We alone stood between Japan and the interference of European powers in the earlier Sino-Japanese war, and at the close of it, both sides were well served by the presence of an American adviser. We took no sulky attitude towards Japanese successes in Korea. Takahashi, who earlier borrowed his way out of indentured labor in California, later, as president of the Bank of Japan, got loans from Americans to carry on the Russian War. (This was the time when we thought Japan could win only on the sea while Britain thought she could win only on land.)

There had been waves of anti-Westernism before, but Japanese-American friendship began to cool after

the Russo-Japanese War. The first Roosevelt's intervention in the peace was interpreted mistakenly as robbing Japan of her spoils. Almost alone among the Powers we wished to curb Japan's monopoly in Manchuria between 1905 and 1914. We opposed Japan's demands on China at Versailles. Our traditional support of the Open Door and the territorial integrity of China, our own wider horizons as a Pacific power, began to conflict with Japan's deep-seated expansionism. Ever since the Russian war, Japan insisted she was but imitating our own Monroe Doctrine; but she misses the essential point in that her Doctrine implies the destruction of the independence of Eastern Asia.

The gift of uncounted millions of dollars, or the Do-ai (Mutual Love) hospitals at Tokyo and Yokohama, or the touching donation from our Navy of vital marine maps and charts to replace those lost in the disaster of 1923 could not entirely erase the fear in certain quarters that American warship bringing relief supplies were about to pounce on Japan's stricken cities. "The American peril calls up the dying soul of Japan from premature death," cried chauvinistic conservatives. The decrease of naval tension after the Washington Conference of 1922 was a short-lived boon for the Japanese liberal movement; some believed it had postponed a revolution.

The Japanese possess a queer and dangerous frustration and a desire to turn teacher. The poet Noguchi suggested that Japan's wild instinct turned toward Germany, her sense of justice toward Anglo-Saxon civilization. Powerful leaders pretend now to have learned of the decadence of the West from us, and add that they can and will teach Asia all she needs to know. Her autocratic military temper cannot abide American concepts of progress or social and material well-being.

Obviously, it is not easy to predict what will happen when our civilization goes abroad and what repercussions our power may have. We can guess that the Americanized element of Japanese society will not prove a helpful fifth column. Defeated, the Japanese will be in dire need of the very things and ideas, "Our Honorable Friend, America," has had ample experience in bringing to them. We have crossed the destiny of Japan as a friend. But our greatest influence will be her defeat.

Visual and Other Aids

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What is more discouraging to the social studies teacher than to be confronted with a class, or large

group within a class, which does not enter into discussions? Of course the causes of this type of behavior

are numerous. However, to the extent that lack of interest in the material or reading difficulties contribute to the classroom lethargy, the intelligent use of transcriptions and recordings may alleviate the difficulty.

A recording whose content is rich in meaningful detail and realistic in dramatization can do much to heighten pupil interest. If the vocabulary is suitable for the maturity level of the pupils the recording may stimulate the pupils to read more extensively. For example, through the use of the recording "Abe Lincoln in Illinois," a pupil can develop an interest in reading about the life of Lincoln, the Civil War period, or worth-while plays.

In addition to giving pupils information and stimulating their interest in the social studies as a basis for increased participation in class discussion, the use of recordings can afford the pupils opportunities to improve their written expression. Not only will it enrich the pupils' background of experience upon which he can draw for his written work, but frequently a series of skillfully dramatized recordings have encouraged pupils to write their own dramatization around a central theme of the particular course.

The following criteria listed by J. Robert Miles, a member of the staff of Evaluation of School Broadcasts Project, Ohio State University, can serve the social studies teacher as a partial basis for the evaluation of recordings for classroom use:

1. Is the content of the recording significant?
2. Is the content of the recording accurate?
3. Is the content related to students' interests and needs?
4. Does the recording show the social or cultural value of the content?
5. Does the recording develop valid generalizations?
6. Does the recording provide experience otherwise unavailable in the classroom?
7. Does the recording integrate materials from different subject-matter fields?

TRANSCRIPTIONS AND RECORDINGS

The Recording Division of WOR, 1440 Broadway, New York, has released transcripts of Prime Minister Churchill speaking before the joint session of Congress and President Roosevelt asking Congress for a declaration of war. These speeches are recorded on five twelve-inch records. They may be purchased together for \$4.00.

The World Book Company, Yonkers, New York, will soon publish a book entitled *Records for School Use*, a catalog of appraisals written by J. Robert Miles which will describe and appraise approximately 1200 recordings and transcripts suitable for school use. The appraisals are based upon the judgments of experts in the area of auditory aids, teacher commit-

tees, and the reactions of individual teachers who have used the recordings in their classrooms.

One may obtain catalogs and other information relative to educational recordings from the following producers:

- American Automobile Association, Pennsylvania Avenue at Seventeenth Street, Washington, D.C.
- The American Social Hygiene Association, 50 West Fiftieth Street, New York City.
- American Youth Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.
- Columbia Recording Corporation, 799 Seventh Avenue, New York City.
- Decca Records, Inc., 50 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York City.
- Educational Recorders, Inc., 171 South Los Robles Avenue, Pasadena, California.
- Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 35-11 Thirty-fifth Avenue, Long Island City, New York.
- Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, Federal Radio Education Committee, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.
- General Records Company, 1600 Broadway, New York City.
- Harvard Film Service, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri.
- Institute of Oral and Visual Education, 101 Park Avenue, New York City.
- Linguaphone Institute, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.
- C. P. MacGregor, 729 South Western Avenue, Hollywood, California.
- Marcus-Campbell Company (Pronunciaphone), 3601 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- Musicraft Records, Inc., 10 West Forty-seventh Street, New York City.
- Pacific Sound Equipment Company, 7373 Melrose Avenue, Hollywood, California.
- R.C.A. Manufacturing Company, Inc., Camden, New Jersey.
- Radio Transcription Company of America, Ltd., Hollywood Blvd. at Cosmo, Hollywood, California.
- Thomas Rishworth, Educational Director, Station KSTP, St. Paul, Minnesota.
- Timely, Inc., 123 West Twenty-third Street, New York City.
- World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

Over a thousand discs, many suitable for the social studies, are listed in a bulletin entitled *Educational Recordings for Classroom Use*. This bulletin may be

obtained by sending fifty cents to Emilie L. Haley, Time and Life Building, New York City.

The United State Office of Education has produced "Americans All—Immigrants All," a series of twenty-four half-hour programs depicting the contributions made by various immigrant groups to the solving of the problems which have confronted our democracy. This series of recordings is available in the twelve-inch and sixteen-inch records.

"Cavalcade of America," produced by du Pont and distributed by The Association of School Film Libraries, portrays highlights in the development of America. All advertising with the exception of a brief announcement of sponsorship has been eliminated. The dramatization has been recorded upon both twelve-inch and sixteen-inch discs.

R.C.A. Victor has produced, "Abe Lincoln in Illinois," featuring Raymond Massey and Paul Robeson singing, "Ballads for Americans."

"To Rent or To Own," produced by Stephens College, sets up criteria by which pupils can clarify their concepts relative to housing.

FILMS

Making the Dead Appear to Live—a one-reel sound film in either color or black and white. This film shows the manner in which plants and animals brought in by field expeditions are prepared for habitat groups at the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago. The film may be either purchased or rented from the Filmosound Library of Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago.

The New Spirit—the Donald Duck short on income tax produced for the treasury department is available in 16 mm. sound form. This technicolor film has a running time of approximately eight minutes. The film graphically portrays the relationship between income tax funds and the production of munitions of war. It may be secured from the Film Unit, Division of Information, Office for Emergency Management, Washington, D.C.

A National 16 mm. Film Directory of Free Loan Films, which includes a listing of 1700 films on a variety of topics, has been compiled by Lyle Miller, 3303 Hillman, Youngstown, Ohio. Price: \$1.00.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS, 1941

On March 7, *School and Society* again printed Carter V. Good's annual review of activities in education. His "Educational Progress during the Year, 1941" shows that war held the center of the educational stage. Any stock-taking of 1941, said Professor Good, must be in terms of our war effort, since it now is primary. In this connection he quoted with approval the eight questions asked by Professor Briggs in his article, "Cassandra Speaks," to which attention was drawn here in our last issue.

The old problem of federal versus state-local relations continued to be an important issue. Attention was focussed upon it in 1941 by the report of the Educational Policies Commission on *The CCC, the NYA, and the Public Schools*. References to articles discussing this report were given here in our February and March numbers.

Perhaps overshadowing all other thoughts of teachers, last year, was the problem of teaching the concepts and practices of democracy. Principally concerned with this problem was the Committee on Educational Recommendations of the National Council of Education. It sought to answer three questions: (1) What is permanent in democracy? An answer to this question is given by the Educational Policies

Commission's *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*. (2) What are the qualities of good citizenship? Understanding, participation, and faith and loyalty are the answer's principal ingredients. (3) How can school cultivate civic responsibility and the democratic way of life? Of the many answers, the most widely known is *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education*, issued by the Educational Policies Commission.

Energies of schools were turned in 1941, and increasingly since, to helping in national defense and war effort and to building morale. Individuals and groups have made contributions, notably the National Committee on Education—sponsored by the NEA and the American Council of Education—the Educational Policies Commission, and the NEA's Commission on the Defense of Democracy through Education. A signal contribution was made by the completion of the six-year program of the American Youth Commission whose conclusions and recommendations were made in its report in January, 1942: *Youth and the Future: General Report of the American Youth Commission*.

Much attention was given to the problem of the curriculum for today and tomorrow, both in the reports already mentioned and in others such as the

Final Report of the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, published this spring (see this department, last month, under the heading, "Strengthening Democracy in Youth"), and *The Story of the Eight-Year Study: With Conclusions and Recommendations* (1942). The question of appraisals and evaluations received serious attention, as the last named publication illustrates.

The year made it more evident than ever that the era engrossed in individualism is ending. Our increasing awareness that social value and purpose must suffuse science and technology for the good of mankind is giving us new insight into the social function of scholarship and the social relations of science. "Even though totalitarian states may educate for death, democracy more than ever before must educate for life, to eliminate the conditions that have bred totalitarian movements—the instability of economic institutions, the failure to utilize in the common interest the advances of science and technology, the wide-spread sense of insecurity and uncertainty, the feeling of frustration among the youth, the fear of war and national aggression, the inequalities and injustices among classes and peoples, the severe discrepancies between the ideals and practices of democracy."

SAVE DEMOCRACY THROUGH UNION

Professor Carl Becker has been thinking and writing a great deal about democracy and its enemies and how to save the one and destroy the other. In *Yale Review* for March, he proposed ways for "Making Democracy Safe in the World."

Only three methods have been tried or proposed for maintaining peace and unity in Europe. Imperial unification was tried, in vain, by Charles V, Louis XIV, and Napoleon. Now Hitler is trying it. The principle of the balance of power has been in use since Wolsey's time. But it has failed to make permanent peace, and Napoleon and Hitler make us doubt its efficacy. The method of federation was not really tried until after World War I, with the League of Nations.

After reviewing ideas about federation expressed since the time of Grotius, Professor Becker outlined the accepted principles for insuring peace by its means: acceptance of the territorial status quo, with some adjustments; a tribunal to adjudicate disputes; federal force to apply sanctions agreed upon. These were embodied in the Covenant of the League of Nations. Its failure was not due to them but to the fact that, constitutionally, the League was only the agent of its member, sovereign states and "could do only what the member states used it for doing." Its defects, like those of our Articles of Confederation, were not incidental but were inherent.

The League was designed to prevent war, on the

principle that nations have a major interest in such prevention. They do not. Like individuals, nations seek to get certain goods and to avoid certain evils. To attain them wars may have to be used. The League, by design, was not called upon until peaceful means had failed and war was imminent, so that to prevent war the League would have had to go to war, as in the cases of Manchuria and Ethiopia and Spain.

There are federations designed not to prevent wars but to prevent the causes of wars, such as our own federation and the Swiss and the British Commonwealth of Nations. They were formed for positive, political purposes, as stated, for example, in the Preamble of our Constitution. When such a Constitution is backed up by the desire of the federating people to promote common interests, then the federation and its machinery will be successful. The federation is the last step, recognizing a union already existing because the people have similar needs, interests, and ideas.

Global federation, therefore, is not now feasible. Even the nations in Europe alone do not possess such a common base; nor is there a community of interests between the peoples of democratic and totalitarian states. A federation is possible among the peoples of democratic nations, although much in their outlook and ways is divisive. Their federation would have to be loose and flexible.

What should such a federation, at first, provide? The Atlantic Charter, subscribed to by twenty-six nations, is suggestive. The over-arching purpose of federation must be to promote the common welfare. It must provide for the common defense. If it is strong, it can leave Germany to the political decisions of the Germans, without cultivating hate by indemnities, partitions, and the like. So Versailles teaches. Regional federations may be a desirable preliminary step. The United States may object to taking military action in Europe, as a member of a federation. But all the American republics probably would gladly underwrite an alliance, including Great Britain, to defend the western hemisphere by maintaining the Monroe Doctrine and the freedom of the bordering seas. The democracies with common interests in the Far East could take similar steps there. China and India would be equal partners in such a federation, else it would fail. Such federations, designed to promote the common welfare and not that of individual members, would not be a new balance of powers but would be instruments to grapple with those conditions which breed totalitarian philosophies and aggression.

Dr. Becker also discussed how economic opportunities may be equalized through federation in the common interest. He recognized the danger of self-seeking interests, but believed such dangers were less in a federation made by democracies than in one

made by totalitarian nations. To avoid the risks by reverting to the system of sovereign, competing nations, on the principle of the balance of powers, is but to encourage wars.

Pertinent to this discussion is the review of political, economic, educational, and other aspects of how to win the peace which is given in Harold Rugg's department, "America Speaks," in *Frontiers of Democracy* for March. In "Designs for a World Order," Professor Rugg names and comments on some of the notable writings on the subject which have appeared in recent years.

PEACE AND THE EAST

Warnings increase that the peace cannot be won if the customary attitude of the whites is maintained toward their Asiatic allies. Already, suspicious glances are being cast at the Atlantic Charter because it is not a World Charter. Political strategy is no less important than military. The general welfare must be placed above that of any nation or group of nations, whatever their race, creed, or political hue. The old imperialisms, political and economic, must go. The peace aims must be stated, and stated in terms of the common welfare. Call it the World Charter of the political and economic rights of all men, everywhere. To our familiar political bill of rights add an economic bill of rights which will open the way to social security for all, under democracy and freedom.

Such thoughts as these are being expressed frequently by thoughtful people. Readers of this department will recall that in the March and April issues the views of Vice-President Wallace, John Foster Dulles, Alfred N. Whitehead, and Thomas Mann were mentioned. In *Asia* for March several prominent persons voiced the same sentiments. The noted economist, Fritz Sternberg, sounded the warning in *World War, World Charter*. It was evident in Vincent Sheean's *The Chinese—Leaders of Asia*. It was made in Lin Yutang's *Union Now with India*, where the distinguished philosopher strongly criticized English practices in the East and the provincialism of Clarence Streit's *Union Now*. It is the burden of Pearl Buck's *Tinder for Tomorrow* and is implicit in P. K. Mok's *We Chinese Defend Our Faith*. Now is the time, by radio and movie and press, for the great democratic leaders to educate the public to the primal importance of the general welfare of all mankind, to be promoted by global democratic cooperation. Madison, Hamilton and Jay would have used these agencies had they existed, to show the people of America the advantages of federation in their day.

The military side of global unity is told in *Fortune* for March. Allan A. Michie, a foreign correspondent recently returned from nearly a year's sojourn in the East, shows in word and map both the vital impor-

tance of Asia in this struggle and the equally vital fact that ours is now one, smallish, globe so far as military strategy is concerned ("From Cairo to Karachi to Kamchatka to Ketchikan"). The map supplement, "One World, One War," is a remarkable panorama of all continents and seas as viewed from North America. A timely supplement to his story is the detailed exposition, with many illustrations, of Alaska as the "hot spot in U. S. strategy," in the long article on "Bridge to Asia."

DEMOCRACY IN BUSINESS

A man cannot be an autocrat at home, an anarchist in business, and a democrat in citizenship. Democracy must enfold all human relationships. With this thought, Dr. Edwin G. Nourse, director of the famous Institute of Economics at the Brookings Institution and president of the American Economic Association, examined "Democracy As a Principle of Business," in an essay in the March issue of the *Yale Review*.

If business is to supply human needs most effectively and expeditiously it must find and place in the various production posts people with the abilities best suited for them. In distributing aptitudes Nature democratically gave them to high and low, rich and poor. She is no respecter of caste or class but uses the principle of democracy. Her endowments, however, need cultivation. Our schools do an indispensable work, relieving business of the necessity for developing much of its labor supply, aside from specialized training and experience on the job.

Under our laissez-faire system we develop the capacities of labor but recognize no obligation to furnish labor opportunities to use them. Moreover, while it allows men to rise from the ranks to the top by the force of their capacities it does not, at the top, recognize that those capacities exist in the ranks. Full labor democracy requires not only that the gifted may rise but also that the majority, the less gifted, shall have "the chance of some active participation in the life of business." Business men insist that it is the sense of enterprise which is the indispensable stimulus to ambition and industry. Yet they deprive the many of that sense by reserving management to a small, aristocratic personnel who are looked upon as monopolizing the strong minds and nimble wits while the mass of employees possess only strong backs and nimble fingers.

This sharp separation impairs labor's morale and deprives business of much ability. Why not diffuse the sense of enterprise as widely as possible? Why deny labor even an advisory part in the making of decisions which affect all? The doctrine of economic enterprise, thoughtfully applied to all labor, would benefit all business not only by buttressing the executive with the counsel of all concerned in the enter-

prise, giving workers "the thrill, the enlightenment, the worry" that would come from sharing in management, but also by promoting mutual understanding through discussion of common problems and situations. Labor, even if ignorant of these problems and situations, is none the less deeply concerned about management, acting in terms of its ignorance, often at the instigation of the unscrupulous in unions and in politics. Better it would be for business to give labor such part as it can share "in a comprehensive discussion of business problems within the administrative system of the business on which they are dependent." As things now are, the transition would not be easy. But can there be progress without cost?

Dr. Nourse discussed various abuses of which both unions and management are guilty and then concluded with a lengthy consideration of the use of capital as fundamental to the whole problem. Although all of us may, by our savings, contribute to capital, only a few people manage the capital funds, deciding when and where to put them to productive use. Should a few determine when and where and how capital shall be used? Is that not the business of all, in a democracy? "Capital nourishes research, implements invention, provides giant equipment, finances far-flung and intricate systems of integrated production and market distribution. It works while the consumer sleeps . . . to bring forth a new or better product to satisfy the wants of men." The efficiencies of mass production lower prices and encourage mass consumption, usually with profit. That is democratic, is in the common interest, and "democracy thus becomes the life of the market." But the minority who control and manage capital, instead of keeping it lean like an athlete, make it too fat with profit or else fear to use it at all. For they allow capital to work only in terms of a price-making system that lives on scarcity.

The farmer who refuses to save to get capital for his work on the ground that it is too risky or might deprive him of employment would be regarded as crazy. The point is obvious in his case since he both manages his capital and uses his labor. It is less obvious in business because we have divided responsibility for using the labor force and managing capital. How can the lost unity be restored? Dr. Nourse posed the problem. Its solution lies in social engineering rather than in shibboleths, cranks, and -isms. The goal is "The greatest material well-being for the people as a whole," and not the perpetuation of aristocratic controls.

ORGANIZATION FOR WAR

The March issue of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science dealt with the subject of "Organizing for Total War." Military men, medical men, and civilian specialists, in nine

articles, described: "The Armed Forces of the Nation" and their problems. Included were such topics as our man power, its training and classification, health, recreation, morale, and the nature of defense. In eight other articles, specialists examined what is required of our economy to provide all the sinews of war and studied the problems of safeguarding and promoting civilian morale.

Teachers will be interested especially in the last three articles, which look toward the future. John M. Clark, Columbia University economist, interpreted "Our Economic Freedom." Colonel John N. Andrews, New York University economist, outlined problems of "Re-employment and Postwar Planning" and enumerated steps being taken to cope with them. David Cushman Coyle concluded the entire discussion by explaining the "Purpose of America" as he saw it.

Much that these men say is worth pondering. The fear of business that government, by its wartime restrictions, will permanently imperil economic freedom is unjustified. Does the soldier feel that his democratic freedom is permanently imperiled because he takes orders from his officers in wartime? The immediacy of war needs and concerted effort necessitates a set up peculiar to itself.

But that laissez faire will be curbed was evident even before the war, during the depression. Such crises must be prevented. Moreover, in industry, in labor, even in agriculture, group organization had proceeded so far that the competition which underlay the old laissez-faire philosophy had been strangled. The old system is gone because its conditions have disappeared, and what is needed is voluntary co-operation of economic groups, not for self-seeking objectives but for the common welfare. Of no little significance is the fact that so much that is said in *The Annals* supports the views already described in this department.

REGIONALISM IN AMERICA

Although it has not been unusual to draw attention to the historical significance of regional differences in the United States, it is probably true that a large number of good teachers do not appreciate fully the importance of regionalism in our history. They will be grateful, therefore, to George T. Renner and Mayne P. Renner for their article on "Regionalism in American Life," in the February number of *Teachers College Record*. Professor Renner, like Professor Odum of the University of North Carolina, has been a leader in the effort to bring to teachers an awareness of the permanent and deep effects of regionalism upon our life. Our national unity is many-hued. Our nation is a mosaic of at least seven unlike pieces, each with its own physiography, resources, history, traditions, industries, outlook, lan-

guage, literature, and arts. Each is a well-defined cultural pattern in the national whole. And the human pattern of each fits the shape of the geographic matrix in which it lies.

The maps accompanying the article are illuminating. The seven regions are marked out and the border areas, difficult to classify because of mixtures, are shown. The physical homologues of the United States to regions in other continents are mapped and described. The comparisons are suggestive. The authors argue convincingly that regionalism is one of the most important factors in American life. Consequently our life cannot be understood properly without an understanding of regionalism. In conclusion, the authors give twenty-five references to materials in periodicals, books, reports, and pamphlets on regionalism. Every teacher of the social studies should read this article.

YOUTH AT TOMORROW'S HELM

Goodwin Watson tellingly described the importance of teaching democracy and the democratic way of life, in an article on "Youth and the Imperative Mood" in the *Teachers College Record* for February. Our youth of 1942 personally can recall only the troubled times of the depression years and of the war years since. They recall no happy times, and they have not had a favorable foundation for training for democracy. These youth face the greatest world military crisis since Napoleon and are called by it to establish world order. They have experienced the greatest economic crisis in modern history and are called upon to plan for economic abundance. And they are in the midst of the greatest human crisis in centuries and are called upon to extend democratic controls throughout the world.

Professor Watson discussed implications of these crises for education. So serious are they that they must take precedence over other needs. It is evident to all that world order requires that the peace be won as well as the war, won not only on the military front but on economic, political, and social fronts in addition. Should we teach our youth to want a super organization such as Clarence Streit's *Union Now* proposes? Can they learn the democratic way if for years they live in homes and schools that are run as autocracies? How can they practice democratic living as youth, getting it into neural mechanisms as habits? Should they be taught to see the public and private sides of economic activity as complementary necessities for the promotion of the general welfare?

Such questions as these indicate the goals toward which youth must strive. At present their future seems blocked. And youth lives for the future. Teachers must give youth something in the future to struggle toward. "To implement the dreams of youth for

their House of Tomorrow is the teacher's noblest opportunity."

THE TEACHER'S ROLE

Margaret Mead, of the American Museum of Natural History, is one of the country's leading anthropologists. Her article on "An Anthropologist Looks at the Teacher's Role," in *Educational Method* for February, interprets that role in an unusual way. Few teachers who read the article will forget it.

Dr. Mead pointed out that while teaching is very old, anticipatory teaching is not. In uncivilized groups a man sought a teacher when he faced an emergency. The learner had to seek his teacher. The teacher was one who had faced the same problem successfully and could therefore tell what to do. Teachers were also those who passed on the lore and skills of the group. It was late in human history that the school was invented: a place where many persons could go to learn in anticipation of future needs, and not a place where one person taught one other some immediate, pressing thing.

The early teacher was the ally of parents. But in the school where many pupils met a few teachers, the teacher was concerned with preparing the pupil for a career. This future might be unfamiliar to the parent. The child might acquire skills, might learn ways and accept ideas and look upon life as his parents did not. The teacher no longer merely supplemented the parent. He opened the way for the child to move into a stratum of society where his parents had never been.

Parents value such social mobility, but they may also fear it since it may separate child and parent. The native Indian and the Serbian immigrant, in our midst, may find their children being made alien, by the school, to their ancestral culture. Schools "become instruments for weaning children away from the traditions of their parents." Parents therefore seek to control teachers, usually by invoking the traditional, familiar moral code of the group. With us they will dictate whether teachers may smoke or dance or engage in politics. It is a highly charged situation. Is the teacher a morally responsible person? For he who has knowledge may also be wicked while he who lacks knowledge may be good. When teachers are held to the old moral code they are tied to the familiar safe past.

A teacher may do one of two things, in this situation. She may strengthen her ties with the parents by sharing in their community life and continuously making clear to them "the strange mysteries into which she is initiating their children." Or she may strive for federal sanction of what she is doing and thereby loosen the local hold of parents. At the root of our problems of academic freedom, higher standards, freedom from local boards, etc., is this question

of "how close or how distant are to be the ties between the teacher and the parents. . . ."

In today's crisis we are urged to teach the glories of our past more thoroughly than ever. At the same time we are urged that we must prepare youth for a future in a rapidly changing world. This is a dilemma. As official instruments of change teachers will arouse parental anxiety. A restatement may resolve the dilemma: the teacher uses the past as the instrument to implement the future. "In our schools we are preparing our children to go—in the future—further on the same road that our forefathers traveled in the past, but using new vehicles. . . ." The young must acquire skills never known to the parent in order to preserve the very values most precious to the parents. Now is the time for teachers to use the symbols of the past and future together.

This article is one of a half dozen on "Mental Hygiene of the Teacher" which is the topic of the February issue of *Educational Method*. Especially helpful in the group of essays dealing with the topic is that on "Mental Hygiene and the Teacher" by Marion N. Echols, a teacher, hygienist, and case worker.

NOTES FOR TEACHERS

Dr. Charles H. Judd proposed an outline of "A Complete Program of Social Studies," in the March issue of *The Elementary School Journal*. He declared that, in the world we know, the social studies must hold a central position in the curriculum. There they must inculcate those ideas which it is their unique function to teach. Dr. Judd suggested five general ideas which are the peculiar contribution of social studies in the education of the child: ideas of the social group, invention, social organization, conservation of physical and human resources, and adaptation. Teachers may think of others equally important.

Around these he suggests that a twelve-year course be built. In the primary grades stress group life, using the classroom group, and stress the art of communication. In the fourth and fifth grades, roughly, develop the concept of man's relation to his physical environment. Indian life may be used as illustrative of the play of regional geography. Concrete lessons in international relations may be begun. In the sixth grade the major theme may be invention, followed by the study of modern industries in the seventh grade and of organized administrative institutions in the eighth, including our federal government. Intellectual institutions—language, number, time-measurement—would follow in the ninth. In the senior high school the problems of modern society can be studied. "There is in the succession of achievements of the human race a definite and readily discernible sequence. If this sequence is followed, it gives to the social studies an order and integrity far more signifi-

cant as a means of preparing young people for life than anything that is taught in the other subjects in the school curriculum."

There is a useful article on "Population Trends in the United States," in the April number of *Scientific Monthly*. Its author, Dr. Constantine Panunzio, discussed four major trends and their implications: the trend toward stationariness, the cessation of large city growth, the continued rapid multiplication in the poorer classes, and the rapidly growing number of old people.

Those seeking official statements about "European Agreements for Post-War Reconstruction" will find them in *Foreign Policy Reports* for March 15. Vera M. Dean, editor, presents the "Declaration By United Nations" of January 1, 1942, "The Four Freedoms" stated by President Roosevelt, the "Resolution of Allied Governments" of June 12, 1941, the Atlantic Charter, and other declarations and agreements of various nations and regional groups. Mrs. Dean, by way of introduction, discussed the implications of these documents for the future. Since January, *Current History* has been reprinting official documents as part of a fixed policy to supply students with original source materials.

More and more people nowadays are talking about the Negro problem. Hitler's challenge to the democracies makes us sensitive to the challenge of the Negro problem at home to our own democracy. In *Asia*, for April, for the first time in that magazine's history there is an article on the problem: "For Whose Freedom?" by Edwin R. Embree, president of the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The article, by a close student and distinguished expert, drives home starkly the fact that the Negro is not free. It shows clearly the dangers for our democracy that lurk in the problem and how pressing is the need to deal with it, for its complexities will take years to unravel.

Survey Graphic's March issue is another in the "Calling America" series. Dealing with public health, it really is a life-conservation number. A score of men and women study problems of health and fitness in wartime and after. The economic, nutritional, recreational, personal, as well as medical phases of life conservation are explored. Morale, hospitals, alcohol, diseases, food, the four freedoms, suggest the scope of the issue.

LONG ISLAND ASSOCIATION

In March, the Long Island Social Studies Teachers Association met at Columbia University to discuss Latin America. Practical suggestions were canvassed for teaching about the nations of our hemisphere, in all grades up to the college level. Bibliographical material was presented and an exhibit of work done by children studying Latin America was examined. In May, the association will hold a similar meeting on

the theme, "The Far East." The inspiration, and practical assistance which have radiated from the group have drawn more and more teachers into it, making it one of the most active of such local organizations. The officers for the past season have been:

President: Robert Reid, Garden City High School.

Vice-President: Miss Flora Gunnerson, Hempstead High School; Miss Gertrude Wetterauer, Hicksville High School.

Secretary: Miss Eleanor Craw, Larkfield School, East Northport.

Treasurer: Bernard Braun, East Street School, Hicksville.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

Uncle Sam's Stepchildren: The Reformation of United States Indian Policy, 1865-1887. By Loring Benson Priest. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1942. Pp. x, 310. \$3.75.

This excellent volume, as its sub-title indicates, treats the official United States government Indian policy for a period of about two decades following the Civil War. As such it is an important contribution to a subject which seldom has been considered from a scholarly viewpoint and with historical perspective.

The significance of the book is two-fold: (1) The specific aim of the author in presenting a well-documented description of the development of official policy during a very crucial period in Indian-White relations, and (2) a revelation of the muddled thought and ignorance of the vital aspects of acculturational processes on the part of legislators and the public, and the influence on legislation by privilege-seeking groups, such as missionaries and church bodies, cattle interests, railroads, frontiersmen and colonists' associations, as well as state and local politicians. Although this period offers little to be proud of, there is some consolation in imagining how much more devastating would have been the lot of the Indian if these pressure-groups had had their way.

The practical results of legislation on the Indians themselves is not discussed by the author; such a study obviously would involve lengthy considerations of the ethnology of each tribe, a task far beyond the scope of the book. Nor is attention given to the practical aspects of administration, another vast subject with many sordid chapters, the accounts of which seldom are found in official documents.

The only valid regret about this study, is that it ends with 1887, when the Dawes Act was passed. Surely all readers will join in the hope that Dr. Priest is planning one or more additional volumes to cover at least the period from 1887 to 1933 when a

complete reorganization of Indian policy was instituted.

This book should be read by every legislator who should keep in mind that all in the lobby should not be invited in to the conference table when the Peace Conference considers the welfare of other native peoples of the world.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The War: Second Year. By Edgar McInnis. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. ix, 318. \$2.00.

This volume brings World War II to September, 1941. It is a continuation of *The War: First Year*. This second volume is an excellent account of the absorbing, complex and colossal events which have shaken Western civilization to its foundations. Professor McInnis has shown great skill in winnowing his facts and in compiling them into a valuable work of reference and review.

This book is good history written with care, with admirable compactness, and with a vigorous and very readable appeal. The book reveals a balanced estimate of the political, strategical, economical and personal factors involved in this complex story. Text maps, documentary appendices, and texts of documents add further to the value of this volume. It is recommended as a "must" for the bookshelf of teachers and laymen.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

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The Supreme Court and Judicial Review. By Robert K. Carr. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Pp. 304. \$1.50.

It may sound like a truism to say that the Supreme Court is a major organ of government, yet the fact is inadequately understood by many. This volume is

an exposition of how judicial review has enabled the Court to share with Congress and the President in the political process of governing. The thesis is not novel, but this is no disparagement of the book. Its value must be appraised in terms of the widespread misconception of the Court's function. Too frequently that eminent tribunal is looked upon as though it were a panel of mathematicians settling questions by applying immutable principles to reach inevitable solutions. The process is by no means so inexorable. The *discretionary* power to pronounce upon the validity of national and state laws is the power to affect the course of national policy—the power to govern.

That judicial review has meant discretionary power will be manifest to any one who follows the author's analysis of its operation in the great constitutional fields of interstate commerce and due process of law. The Supreme Court's decisions upon important legislative policies—price control, minimum wages and child labor, for example—are seen to have little of the inevitable about them.

In addition to examining political review in action, its origins and constitutional basis are discussed. The storms of controversy which have centered about the Court throughout its history and the proposals for limiting its power are also treated. Interesting speculations are offered on how the course of decision has been influenced by the personalities of the justices and by the play of extra-legal pressures upon the Court. Finally, an appraisal of judicial review is attempted. The judgment is favorable. Judicial review will be retained, but since it enables the Court to govern, democratic considerations require that the Court, by whatever means are necessary, be kept ever mindful of the social and economic necessities of the time.

The Supreme Court as an organ of policy functions only negatively. It exercises an effective veto over the legislative programs of the states and the nation, but cannot itself initiate public policy. The implications of this fact are important for an adequate understanding of judicial review, yet they are nowhere discussed in the book. Otherwise, the treatment is thorough and careful, although undistinguished.

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Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Social Research. By George A. Lundberg. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942. Second Edition. Pp. xx, 426, Tables. \$3.25.

This is a thorough revision of the 1929 text by Dr. Lundberg. No advanced scholar, professor or student in the social sciences can afford to be unfamiliar with this work which covers the known techniques of quantitative social research. Excellent tables and

figures are included. The first four chapters give an orientation in research methods, terminology, definitions, classification, and values of the quantitative technique. Then follow eight chapters with examples and detailed instructions in the methodology of the following research techniques: "The Sample," "The Schedule," "The Questionnaire," "The Measurement of Attitudes and Opinions," "The Measurement of Institutional Behavior," "Sociometric Methods in Ecology and Interpersonal Relations, Field Work," "The Interview and Social Survey," and the summary chapter, "Social Bookkeeping."

Furthermore, this study has inestimable value because of its profuse footnotes and chapter end references to many specific examples of the use of the several research methodologies. Also, the appendix includes a valuable Bibliography of Bibliographies, covering the various research studies and techniques. This book has two distinct values: First, it is a thorough and comprehensive treatment of the field of social research by the quantitative, objective measurement devices and techniques; second, the references to the specific studies which exemplify the several methodologies, in addition to the general bibliography, are invaluable to the research student. The frame of reference is that social behavior is measurable. The reason for retardation in the social field is the absence of standardized statistical techniques.

Some scholars would object to the implications of the statement: "Only when the quantitative stage is reached do our generalizations begin to partake of the nature of advanced or exact science." Also, many sociologists will desire more evidence of exactness of definition and understanding of the various subject matter fields and their relation to science when the author states: "To the extent that historians go beyond the mere recording of facts . . . and attempt to reduce their data to types, and to generalize from them, history becomes a natural science," and by implication, remains history.

This text would meet with a more enthusiastic approval from all social scientists had more recognition been given to those scholars who do not choose to spend their research energy in the manipulation of statistical data. There is need for the social scientist who abstracts from reality, logically analyzes, and generalizes therefrom just as there is need for the physicist who abstracts from reality, creates a vacuum, and then states his generalization relative to falling bodies in a generalization known as a law. And those who abstract from reality, logically analyze, and state generalizations in the field of economics need the data from the researches of the so-called institutional economists. The qualitative and quantitative social scientists in all fields are mutually interdependent. However, the failure to feature one of the valuable

methodologies in social research in no way invalidates the many quantitative techniques which are presented in this book.

Professor Lundberg shows that scientific objectivity is not inherent in "data *per se*" but rather in the standardization of the "symbols with which we communicate about phenomena. When these symbols have verifiably similar meanings to all men, we call the phenomena to which the symbols refer *objective* . . . the advancement of science has consisted of gradually rendering 'objective' increasingly larger areas of traditionally 'subjective' phenomena." Certainly, this text makes a major contribution to the goal of objectivity in the social sciences.

ALBERT H. BURROWS

Northern Michigan College of Education
Marquette, Michigan

Principles of Anthropology. By Eliot Dismore Chapple and Carleton Stevens Coon. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1942. Pp. xi, 718, Illustrated. \$3.75.

Anthropology embraces such a vast field of inquiry that the non-specialist often is confused as to just where a line can be drawn to separate it from the other disciplines which treat with human beings and their ways of life. Strictly speaking there is no specific line of demarcation for it is only a matter of historical accident that the anthropologist has devoted his attention principally to native and prehistoric peoples and has left the consideration of the same type of problems in our more complex society to the many sciences developed specifically to investigate them. Until now the essential differences between social anthropology on the one hand and sociology, political science and economics on the other, is that the former has always dealt with comparative studies, excluding our own society, whereas the latter have been confined to the problems of western civilization.

In recent years sociologists, and to a lesser extent, political scientists and economists, have felt the need for anthropological methods and data in pursuing their own particular interests, while those anthropologists who concern themselves with the manner in which societies function, an important branch of anthropology, have reached the view that if the principles which seem to operate in other human societies are valid, they will apply to our own social system as well.

Dr. Chapple and Dr. Coon have presented the first comprehensive application of this point of view. The results of their efforts will be welcomed by all social scientists and should be appreciated particularly by those teachers who have slight direct acquaintance with anthropological data. The factual evidence for their discussion is abundant and well chosen but

never burdensome, a feature too seldom found in textbooks of importance.

The organization of the book is well ordered. Under four major categories of consideration, I. Biology and Human Relations, II. Environment and Technology, III. The Development of Institutions, and IV. Symbols and Human Relations, are thirty chapters on special topics, such as Environment, Manufacture, Transportation, Technology, Division of Labor, The Family, Political, Economic and Religious Institutions, Language, Art, Warfare, Money, Law, and Science. Selected reading lists are provided for each chapter, as well as a glossary. The maps and text figures are novel and most helpful.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A History of South Africa: Social and Economic. By C. W. De Kiewiet. Oxford, England: Clarendon Press, 1941. Pp. xii, 292. \$3.75.

If it is the function of history to throw light upon the present, this book must be accounted good history indeed. In its pages contemporary conditions in the Union are rendered understandable in the light of their past development. It is a story not easily told, for the skein of South Africa's economic and social evolution is fearfully interwoven, and would in less skillful hands become badly tangled. Professor De Kiewiet is an expositor of parts who tells his story clearly, yet with richness of phrase and figure. It is true that certain points are frequently reiterated, but he has his justification in that the points are vital and might otherwise be overlooked. The story begins with Van Riebeeck's pioneers, who established at the Cape a port of call on the route to the Indies. In defiance of official policy there grew up in the hinterland a race of pastoral Trekboers, with a subsistence economy, a strong racial consciousness, and a distaste for governmental control. British rule brought to the colony a measure of regulation, especially concerning the land system and native affairs, unacceptable to the Boers. This, coupled with wanderlust and land hunger, prompted the Great Trek, which Balkanized South Africa for decades to come. Poor in many natural resources, the Union proved to have great mineral wealth.

The discovery of diamonds and gold, not to mention coal and iron, made possible the economic development of recent years. There ensued a sharp struggle between the new and the old, between the philosophy of the Rand and of the veld, which culminated in the South African War and resulted in something of a synthesis. Responsible South African opinion has long united in favoring the exploitation of mineral resources, and mining has been carried

to a great peak of efficiency, necessarily so for the gold deposits are poor, though vast. The diamond market has long since been stabilized by monopolistic control. These sources of wealth are far from exhausted, yet they will presumably one day be ended. In the meantime they are made to carry a large share of the burden of public expense. They are also employed to foster other enterprises, agricultural, pastoral, and industrial, which it is hoped will prove permanent. Upon the wisdom of this policy in its entirety, the author casts serious doubts.

But his principal strictures are reserved for the native policy. This has sought to segregate the races politically, economically, and socially. The more remunerative tasks are reserved for the whites, in large measure by virtue of custom and training, but frequently by law. In a country poorer per capita than the other Dominions it is sought to maintain a high standard for the white at the expense of the man of color. But more than economics is involved. Out-numbered nearly five to one, the European fears for his politically dominant position and for the purity of his race. It is Professor De Kiewiet's contention, supported by weighty evidence and cogent argument, that the prosperity of the two races is inseparably linked, and that the one cannot enjoy true progress while the other remains depressed. The existence of a pathetic "poor white" class emphasizes this conclusion.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Opinion Conflict and School Support. By Frederick T. Rope. New York: Bureau of Publication; Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii, 164. \$2.00.

This little book is of interest to the school administration and to the student of democracy. The first part of it contains an admirable discussion of public opinion and research methods relating to it. This discussion is particularly welcome since it places the main educational problem with which the book is concerned in its proper perspective. The schools are an integral part of the democratic process. Consequently, it is reasonable to suppose that devices which have been found useful to democracy generally may have a place in educational policy.

Dr. Rope has made a thorough study of opinion on certain educational issues in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, as part of a Strayer Survey. Both the methods used and the results obtained are of interest to the professional reader. Administrators who are contemplating changes in their programs or policies, or who are wondering how their school system is regarded by the voters should look into this book. In every town,

statements are frequently made that the people, the taxpayers, want this or are opposed to that. Often such statements are misrepresentations of public opinion regarding public education.

Here the reader will find means suggested to get through to the facts on public opinion and what may be more important, to open up new channels of communication for the inarticulate supporters of the schools. It is probably true that the people of the country support and believe in the schools as the people of Pittsburgh do. But it is important that the schools know what the people want and that they continue to interpret their programs to the public. This is the way public education grew; this is the way democracy grew.

RICHARD J. STANLEY

William H. Hall High School
West Hartford, Connecticut

The Social Studies in the Elementary School. Edited by William E. Young. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941. Pp. xx, 243. \$2.00.

This *Yearbook* is a definite contribution to the field of progressive education. Its outstanding quality is that it not only explains *what* should be done; it gives ideas on *how* to do it. It carries throughout the real essence of teaching. It takes us down off our subject-matter pedestals from which we attempt to pour facts into little pitchers. Instead, it shows why we are teachers of children and why the development of the child is so essential to a democratic society. It makes us realize the scope of our task which must include the consideration of all the phases of the child's life. In short, we must actually be the foster-parents of these youngsters if we are really going to perform the task that has been put before us; the fullest possible development of the personality and character of each child.

Throughout the book is an evolving concept of democracy which is so essential at a time like this. The various persons who have contributed to this work have expressed the same basic idea; that the best way to foster democratic living is to develop the individual to the fullest extent of his aptitudes, capacities, and attitudes, and in so doing he will develop social consciousness that will be the basis for democratic action.

We have all heard these words before and we have all exclaimed, "So what?" "How are you going to do all this?" And this is the spot where the *Twelfth Yearbook* surpasses others that the reviewer has seen. It shows how it has been done in some of the finest schools in the country.

A minor fault is the blanket statement that the teacher should be an integral part of her community;

we all realize that such is impossible in most communities.

THEODORE P. BLAICH

Glenville High School
Cleveland, Ohio

TEXTBOOK AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

An Introduction to Sociology. By John L. Gillin and John P. Gillin. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 806. \$3.75.

The statement of the writer of *Ecclesiastes*: "Of making many books there is no end," might aptly be applied to texts on introductory sociology. Many have appeared in recent years. Some of these books have been mediocre, others rather good.

The ambitious authors writing such a text today have an advantage and a disadvantage. They may profit from the mistakes of their predecessors as well as their good points. At the same time, however, the standard of excellence is constantly rising, and the quantity of good new material, which might conceivably be used in such a work, is increasing in geometric ratio with the years.

In place of the old standard *Outlines of Sociology* by Blackmar and Gillin (1905 and 1915) and its revisions we have the latest successor by father and son, Gillin and Gillin. The father, a sociologist of long standing, is joined by the son, an anthropologist interested in the cultural aspects of that subject. And a very creditable performance it is.

This volume is written for students. It is most readable, and, incidentally, contains numerous illustrations and pertinent cartoons from the *New Yorker*. Here is no academic aloofness, or attempt to impress their colleagues with a fine spun, hair splitting vocabulary of coined words.

The Gillins have attempted to be fair with respect to various definitions of sociology, culture, social change, etc., and the different points of view about material in the field of sociology and anthropology, but they have a clear cut, well thought out and neatly integrated presentation of their own ideas. There is much to be said for the clarity of the manner in which they have woven together the findings of the anthropologists, biologists, psychologists, and sociologists, and the valuable descriptive material illustrating the basic outline itself. Some readers may object to the large amount of anthropological material, especially in the first half of the text, but the reviewer believes that to be basically a sound approach. The student who masters this text will have a clear cut understanding of sociology and what it is attempting to do as a social science.

There are a few minor adverse criticisms. Occasionally a generalization creeps into the text with little or no support; many would disagree with the idea

that religion is confined to the supernatural (since plenty of scientists believe in a God but not one who is supernatural). The Scopes trial over the teaching of evolution was in Tennessee, not in Kentucky. But these are perhaps for the most part minor errors which seem inevitably to creep into the very best of books.

RAY H. ABRAMS

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Our Changing Society. By Paul Landis. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1942. Pp. xx, 488. Illustrated. \$1.76.

The book is well named for the idea of change is impressed upon the reader from the very first page. The author stresses changes in the home, in education, in production, transportation, and in our government. One feels the rush of events from 1900 on which have so impressed the writer.

In his preface, Dr. Landis states that the "unifying theme of the book is the belief that social conditions cause the social problems." He goes on to say that we cannot approach the problem intelligently unless we understand the conditions that have created it. Most teachers of sociology recognize this to be true and would be glad to have a book where the idea is carried from unit to unit in a consistent manner.

The textbook is attractive with interesting illustrative material in the form of pictures, charts, graphs and cartoons. The idea of building a topic around the illustrative material is rather novel and well worked out. It should help a teacher of sociology to give variety to her classroom work.

The language of the book is simple and the descriptive material up to date and well suited to the high school level. The boys and girls will find the cartoons enjoyable and many of the charts and graphs helpful. If an objection can be offered here, there are perhaps too many of these charts and graphs. After a while they become rather tiring and a bit confusing. The pictures, however, are clear and well selected.

The activities and readings at the end of each chapter should stimulate the interest of the pupils in the problem discussed.

There are several chapters that are worth special mention. "Population Changes and Adjustments" has some excellent graphs and charts and up to date descriptive material. "Recreation as a Civic Function," the "Foundations of America" and "Tomorrow's Work" close this book with a more hopeful note than one finds in the earlier pages. The last chapter especially is a fine piece of writing. In contrast to the very good qualities just mentioned there are some disadvantages. Some of the descriptive material

— JUST PUBLISHED —

THE AMERICAN SCENE

An Introduction to Sociology

By IRVING R. MELBO and A. O. BOWDEN, The University of Southern California; and MARGARET R. KOLLOCK and NELLIE P. FERRY, West Philadelphia Senior High School.

The scope of this book includes a consideration of the origin and diffusion of basic traits in human behavior, and of the function and structure of the basic institutions of American life. Although the American scene is stressed, background material in general social evolution is included to afford historical perspective and informative comparisons, which are necessary to give students a reasonable faith in our present institutions and a tempered optimism for the further progress of mankind. \$1.96.

Write for further
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is written up in so brief a fashion that it seems "choppy." In these cases, the illustrative material seems to outweigh the text.

NELLIE P. FERRY

West Philadelphia High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Challenge of Democracy. By Theodore P. Blais, Joseph C. Baumgartner, and R. J. Stanley. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xvi, 593. Illustrated. \$2.20.

This is an excellent piece of work. The authors have written a book that is well planned and carefully executed. It is evidently the result of considerable study and research. The material is up-to-date and is presented in a clear and interesting manner. The units are logically arranged, and the chapter divisions included in each unit, challenge the interest of the students by their rather unusual titles.

The emphasis upon the individual's responsibilities in a democratic state is well done. The first unit brings the subject of education directly to the attention of the student. The last unit, dealing with the totalitarian challenge to the democratic state, will cause these same individuals to consider the many obligations that rest upon them in exchange for the privileges their country has given to them.

In between these two units are many other studies which will interest youthful readers. The economic life, the home, the problems of the consumer, housing of the family, all relate themselves to the every day experiences of young people. The students will like the chapter "Youth Will Desire to Create a Democratic Home," particularly, the section "The Democratic Way of Life in the Home," since these topics are the ones that boys and girls of seventeen and eighteen are beginning to think about. For that reason, they will find much help in this frank discussion.

It may be possible that some teachers may object to the division "Health of the Individual," as rather too frank a discussion in mixed classes, even in these very modern days. In answer to these objections, it can be stated that it is wise to include the material, because the information contained in it is of such great value to the life and happiness of young men and women. The chapter on insurance as a form of saving is well done and very complete, for a high school text. Difficult points are handled so clearly, that the average high school senior can understand the work. The chapters on public opinion and propaganda are particularly useful during the critical period through which we are now passing. The question of the law-breaker is given a sane treatment

with the emphasis where it belongs—on crime prevention.

There are certain features in the book, especially, "Information Please," "Can you think?," and "We Learn by Doing," that will be particularly useful to the teacher with bright pupils. The thought provoking questions and activities are well chosen and will add interest and variety to the class room work. If the book is too detailed for the regular classroom work, it can be used to great advantage as a companion text, and for collateral reading and special reports.

There are some minor faults. On page 69, a pupil would be led to believe that the East India Company belonged to ancient times. The discussion of labor unions is dogmatic, particularly the statement regarding the C.I.O.

NELLIE P. FERRY

West Philadelphia High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Using Dollars and Sense. By Oliver R. Floyd and Lucien B. Kinney. New York: Newson and Company, 1942. Pp. 314. Illustrated. \$1.40.

The purpose of this attractively-written book is to facilitate the study of the consumer. As the authors state in their preface, our task today is to master the problem not of production but of distribution. The most effective way to bring about a better distribution of the products of our economic system is to educate the consumers. The obligation of the public school system in this field of education is obvious. *Using Dollars and Sense* is a definite contribution to the field of consumer education.

The authors have made a careful selection of material which can be easily expanded by the teacher. There are nine chapters each of which can be enlarged into teachable units. Chapter headings like "The Consumer's Income"; "The Cost of Providing a Home"; "Care and Maintenance of the Home"; "Intelligent Buying"; "Consumer Credit"; and "Providing for the Future," can certainly be used as the basis for some very profitable and very interesting units of study. The chapter on "Intelligent Buying" is particularly well done. The material on the value of advertising is treated in a fair manner and need not offend any vested interests.

The study questions at the end of each chapter are designed for investigation on the part of the student. Also, there are problems that are a part of real life situations. The calculations involved are the type that the student will use when he becomes an adult consumer. There is also an appendix with statistical tables and supplementary problems which can be used as the basis for differentiated class assignments. Answers to the problems are given in the back of the book. There is fairly complete glossary of

technical terms following the appendix.

From a visual education standpoint, the book rates high. The illustrations and graphs are good. The photographs add interest to the material.

This book is suitable for sophomores; but it can be easily and profitably used by the other high school grades by expanding or condensing the material depending upon the needs of the particular classes.

Using Dollars and Sense will be found useful for its purpose and does represent a contribution to the ultimate solution of the problem of distribution.

FRANCIS J. CARBON

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

American Society and the Changing World. By C. H. Pegg and others. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1942. Pp. xiii, 601. \$3.50.

This book, in the words of its authors, "attempts to view American society and its problems as a part of a dynamic interdependent world now in the throes of swift transition." It is an outgrowth of an introductory course in the social sciences at the University of North Carolina. Although there is no general agreement regarding the content and approach for such a course, this cooperative contribution has much to recommend it. It has greater vitality than most texts in the field, and the emphasis on American problems as viewed in their world setting seems to be especially pertinent.

The changing world is described by tracing briefly the course of international events from Versailles to Pearl Harbor, and by treating at some length the recent history and problems of Russia, Italy, Germany, France, Great Britain, Scandinavia, the Far East, and Latin America. These background chapters take over one-third of the entire book, and for the most part contain a happy combination of factual material and pithy summarizations. The problems of modern China and Japan are admirably presented. Both of these countries, it is pointed out, "are passing through many-sided revolutions," and the difficulties they are encountering "provide an excellent example of the nature of the problems which beset a growing world."

The nineteen chapters on "The United States and Its Problems" survey critically and analytically the vast panorama that is America. Considerable attention is given to government, agriculture, business, the consumer, labor, the family, and ethnic and population problems. An excellent chapter on "Vital Principles and Forces in Politics" describes a phenomenon of our governmental structure which has received widespread criticism: "Under the parliamentary system of government, deadlocks are 'resolved.' Under the American system they must be circumvented." For the farmer, faced with the prospect of a substantial reduction in his standard of living, the only

choices which are considered possible are "either a sharing of the market under increasing governmental supervision or mass destitution and a permanent peasantry." "Modern economy," one of the authors points out, "is a *social* affair in the very broadest sense of that term." The implications of this fact are repeatedly stressed; therefore, "the central problem which faces America . . . is the problem of attaining a workable society in which political democracy, personal liberty, and economic security are effectively synthesized."

The chapters of this collaborative work are uniformly well-written, with little repetition, and the viewpoint is consistently liberal. Teachers of introductory courses in the social sciences would do well to ponder on this approach; perhaps they will find that an integrated study of the problems of American society as they are conditioned by "the facts and forces of world life" will give greater value and meaning to the work they are now trying to do.

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Maine

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Using Dollars and Sense: Consumer Economics. By Oliver R. Floyd and Lucien B. Kinney. New York: Newson and company, 1942. Pp. 314. Illustrated. \$1.40.

A clear-cut text on the fundamentals of consumer economics. Can be readily understood by junior as well as senior high school students.

The Heart of the School. Compiled by Frick Educational Commission. Pittsburgh, Pa.: The Commission, 465 Union Trust Building, 1942. Pp. 96. Free on application.

School Betterment Studies, Vol. 3, No. 3, Second Edition. This study presents a record, analysis, interpretation and application of the elements and principles underlying a modern high school assembly program.

Effects of Instruction in Cooperation on the Attitudes and Conduct of Children. By Bryan Heise. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1942. University of Michigan Monographs in Education, No. 2. Pp. ix, 98. \$1.00.

An experimental evaluation of growth resulting from instruction and practice in the applications of cooperation.

The Organization of Knowledge. An Introduction to Philosophical Analysis. By Glenn Negley. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1942. Pp. xvi, 373. \$3.00. School edition.

A challenging, tentative suggestion for the formulation of a systematic plan for the organization of knowledge.

The American Idea. By Eugene T. Adams and Others. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. 278. \$2.50.

A useful collection of contemporary essays for collateral reading.

Introduction to Social Psychology. By Maurice H. Krout. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. xv, 823. Illustrated. \$4.00.

The larger aspects of the psychology of how human beings behave are considered in this competent text. The volume assumes that there are certain abilities to be acquired through the study of social behavior. Teaching aids.

Europe in Perspective, 1815 to the Present. By James Edward Gillespie. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. Pp. xix, 1001. Illustrated. \$4.00.

A balanced interpretation of social, economic, and political forces. First entirely new history of nineteenth and twentieth century Europe published since the outbreak of World War II.

Ten Years: The World on the Way to War, 1930-1940. By Dwight E. Lee. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. xviii, 443. \$3.75.

An excellent combination of narration and interpretation, with the emphasis on the Great Powers. Useful for a graphic, analytical account. Author is a professor of European history at Clark University.

America's Strategy in World Politics; the United States and the Balance of Power. By Nicholas J. Spykman. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. Pp. 500. Maps. \$3.75.

A comprehensive geo-political analysis of the position of the United States in the world.

Directions in Contemporary Literature. By Philo M. Buck, Jr. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Pp. xiii, 353. \$3.00.

Thirteen authors chosen as reflections of these changing times. A revealing inner biography of an age.

Social and Economic Problems Arising out of World War II: A Bibliography. Compiled by Dorothy Campbell Tompkins. Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941. Pp. vii, 114. \$1.50.

A very competent, selective bibliography. The selection has been pointed toward a broad survey of the problems. Valuable aid for teachers.

The War and America. By Francis L. Bacon. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. 125. \$.60.

Brief account of events.

The Needs of Youth. An Evaluation for Curriculum Purposes. By Donald C. Doane. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. vii, 150. \$1.10.

Stimulating discussion. The study evaluates the commonly assumed needs of youth with respect to their adequacy as focal points for instruction or for organization of the curriculum.

Joseph Chamberlain and the Theory of Imperialism. By William L. Strauss. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. x, 133. Cloth edition \$2.50. Paper edition \$2.00.

A challenging interpretation of Chamberlain's career. No index.

Employment Problems of College Students. By Samuel Clayton Newman. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. viii, 158.

Takes into account the extent and effects of student employment as well as the implications of such employment for our educational system and for our democratic society.

The British Tariff Movement. By Marvin E. Lowe. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. vii, 133. Cloth edition \$2.50. Paper edition \$2.00.

Covers the period 1900 to 1932. Indirectly, a study in the field of economic nationalism.

Prisoners of War. A Study in the Development of International Law. By William E. S. Flory. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. 179. Cloth edition \$3.25. Paper edition \$2.75.

A capable review, especially with reference to British and American policy and practice.

Latin America and the Enlightenment. By Arthur P. Whitaker and Others. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942. Pp. xiii, 130. \$1.25.

These essays will remind one that the European Enlightenment met with a warm (though varied) response in Latin America, and that Latin America itself made important contributions to the Enlightenment. Good reading.

Social Security Reserves. By J. S. Parker. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. xvi, 340. Cloth edition \$3.50. Paper edition \$3.00.

Deals primarily with practical problems and the financing of private and social insurance. Data on an important problem fairly presented.

America Organizes to Win the War. Edited by Erling M. Hunt. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. Pp. vi, 426. Illustrated.

A textbook for high schools. An inspiring, comprehensive war aims and morale text by various specialists.

Teamsters and Transportation. By Samuel E. Hill. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942. Pp. xix, 248. Cloth edition \$3.75. Paper edition \$3.00.

A study of employee-employer relationships in New England. A well-rounded examination of union policy and collective bargaining in one of the most rapidly growing industries, inter-city trucking.

North America: Wheel of the Future. By Hawthorne Daniel. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1942. Pp. 300. Charts. \$2.75.

Optimistic. The basis of the vision is that the North American continent is the new fulcrum upon which trade and politics must rest for an indefinite period.

Voltaire and Beccaria as Reformers of Criminal Law. By Marcello T. Maestro. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xi, 177. \$2.00.

A good story of two reformers and a small picture of the world in the process of civilizing itself. Not untimely.

Children's Reactions to a Contemporary War Situation. By Ralph C. Preston. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. x, 96. \$1.60.

Will interest educators and psychologists. The findings concerning developmental trends are significant in themselves and also have important implications for the social studies curriculum in the elementary and junior high school.

Unit Studies in American Problems. By Mary Pieters Keohane. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 36. \$.60.

Prepared for the Committee on Experimental Units of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One of the Committee's efforts to supply better teaching material.